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ABSTRACT

This document contains eight papers in the field of vocational guidance and counseling that were collected in Canada. In the first paper, David Clemens describes the distribution of a career planning booklet through newspapers in Ontario, determining that the booklet was useful to a widespread audience. In the second paper, Charles Bujold views the Canadian Values Inventory and concludes that the most exciting research in this field is yet to be done. The third and fifth papers in this collection, by Joan Hearn and Paul Smith respectively, concern life skills education, suggesting ways human relations skills can be taught and materials that can be used in life skills coaching. In the fourth paper, D. Stuart Conger sets forth the 10 tasks of the assessment component of employment counseling and suggests how the counselor can help clients to set goals. The final three papers concern various aspects of counseling. In the sixth paper, Guy Busque and Georges Sarrazin suggest an evaluation system of employment counseling, while D. Stuart Conger and M. Catherine Casserly explore stages in adults' lives as they relate to career counseling and work patterns. In the final paper, which comprises half of the document, R. F. Giroux presents competencies that should be possessed by persons who provide adult career counseling and guidance. (KC)

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The articles in this book are based upon reports prepared at the request of the Occupational and Career Analysis and Development Branch of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission.

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Preface

Vocational counselling and guidance is important in helping Canadians plan for, enter and succeed in the labour market. For this reason the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC) undertakes research and development to improve the methodology of vocational guidance and employment counselling. Many of the counselling tools that are created for CEIC are freely shared with schools, rehabilitation agencies and other organizations. The NATCON series provide a means of sharing research reports with vocational counsellors thus further enhancing the level of service throughout Canada.

D. Stuart Conger
Director
Occupational and Career Analysis
and Development Branch

The Impact of Widespread Distribution of Career Planning Materials

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In February, 1981, a 32 page booklet called *Jobs For Your Future* was distributed free of cost to 1,862,000 households in Ontario. The vehicles for distribution were 36 daily newspapers, 5 weekly newspapers, and householder mail in 3 areas. Using the standard media formula of 2.2 readers per household, the potential readership was 4,096,400 people.

Jobs For Your Future was created for the purpose of widespread distribution on the assumption that many people in the "general public" need assistance with the process of career planning, yet do not know where to turn for help, what to ask for, or what information is available. It was designed to provide assistance to a wide range of people, from elementary school students to people who are in the later stages of their career yet are looking for something different or more rewarding to do.

The content of the guide was developed with the idea that it should contain as much information as possible in a compact package. It does, in fact, bring together in one publication, information that otherwise must be obtained from many different sources. The general distribution was intended to make information widely available, reaching out to those who would not normally make use of a school guidance department, a career counselling service, or a Canada Employment Centre.[1]

This article describes *Jobs For Your Future* and presents information on the reader response.

Jobs For Your Future was a project of Bridging the Gap, a federally chartered non-profit organization concerned with easing the transition from school to work. Bridging the Gap brings together expertise from all sectors of society, both public and private, to tackle the problems that prevent people from selecting, qualifying for, and finding suitable jobs.

The content of *Jobs For Your Future* was developed according to specifications set by the *Bridging the Gap* Career Action Guide committee. Much of the content was developed by staff seconded from Employment and Immigration Canada and from the Ontario Youth Secretariat. Technical expertise

1. The reader may obtain a complimentary copy of *Jobs For Your Future* by writing to Bridging the Gap, 155 College Street, Toronto, Ontario, Canada M5T 1P6 and citing this article.

for the quiz and for the job chart was provided by the Occupational and Career Analysis and Development Branch of Employment and Immigration Canada. Some articles were developed by committee members. The section on "Getting Qualified" was developed by a professional editor, based on material provided by the Ontario Ministry of Colleges and Universities. The Ministry closely reviewed all material in that section as well as material on occupational preparation in the job chart. The content subcommittee closely reviewed all material before going to press, and all material in the guide was re-evaluated based on reactions to a small initial printing.

The final product included the following components:

- a 60 item self-administered vocational interest quiz
- a career action game combining interests with verbal and numerical aptitudes to result in a cluster of jobs to explore
- a job chart with information on 256 occupations: job title, interest code, job description, working conditions, preparation, verbal ability, numeric ability, forecast demand for workers, and wage range
- articles on how to find a job: the skills of a creative job search; questions employers ask in interviews; application letters and resumes; ways to make a good impression in an interview
- information on educational and training opportunities in the province: apprenticeship; retraining and upgrading; community colleges; universities, private vocational courses; special programs
- articles of special interest: self-employment; non-traditional jobs for men and women; future trends in the labour market
- where to obtain further help: counselling, information, financial assistance, placement agencies, special programs for youth
- a request form for free government pamphlets
- a reader response form

A magazine style of format (8" x 11") was selected to make the guide attractive, easy to use, and easy to keep. It was intended that readers would retain the guide in their homes for up to a year, which would be unlikely with a larger format such as tabloid size. This was borne out in the readership survey, which indicated that 53% of those interviewed would keep it for further reference, and another 21% said they would give it to someone else.

The use of illustrations and colour throughout was deliberately designed to relieve the impact of what was necessarily a lot of print. The information was presented in an attractive package to create motivation on the reader's part to make use of the guide.

Funds for distribution to the general public were provided by the Manpower Training Branch of the Ontario Ministry of Colleges and Universities.

The development of *Jobs For Your Future* was made possible through the generosity of a number of private firms and government agencies, who provided personnel, facilities, research, source materials, and financing: Employment and Immigration Canada, Occupational and Career Analysis and Development Branch, Ontario Region, and Metropolitan Toronto District; Ontario Youth Secretariat; Ontario Ministry of Colleges and Universities, Communications Branch, Manpower Training Branch, and Ontario Career Action Program; Ontario Ministry of Education, Senior and Continuing Education Branch; Ontario Ministry of Labour, Women's Bureau; Board of Trade of Metropolitan Toronto; Foster Advertising Ltd., IBM Canada Ltd.; London Life Assurance Co. Ltd.; Rotary Club of Toronto.

Reaction to the guide came in several forms: a formal readership survey conducted by an independent company; spontaneous letters of thanks from individuals; requests for free pamphlets; and reader response forms.

Since this was an action project, the impact must be gauged from general indicators rather than from formalized research.

1. Readership Survey

As an objective survey of reader reaction, interviews were conducted with 364 randomly selected readers in seven cities (Kitchener, London, Ottawa, Peterborough, St. Catharines, Toronto, Windsor) within one week of distribution. The interviews were conducted by Daniel Starch (Canada) Limited, a marketing research firm.

Those interviewed had received *Jobs For Your Future* and read at least some of it. The ages of the respondents were as follows:

Age Range	*Percentage of Sample*
15 - 17	8%
18 - 24	28%
25 - 34	24%
35 - 44	20%
45 - 54	12%
55 + over	7%
did not state	1%

The readership results are reported in two forms, the "Editorial Readership Report", and the "Hitchhikers" (special questions asked after the readership report questions).

A. *Editorial Readership Report*

The Editorial Readership Report is based on three questions:

1. Did you see this? ("noted" score)
2. Did you read any part of this? ("read some" score)
3. Did you read half or more of this? ("read most" score)

"Noted" and "read some" percentages are cumulative; that is, "read most" percentages are included in "read some" and both are included in "noted."

Appendix A provides a graphic presentation of the noted scores.

The average "noted" score for the entire publication was 65%. The average "read some" score was 52%, and the average "read most" score was 35%. Specialists in the advertising industry report that these are excellent figures for a one-time publication. They compare favourably with regular weekly and monthly magazines which have developed a continuing readership. They are surprisingly high when considering the relatively high proportion of editorial content to illustrations. Apparently, the combination of attractive design with material of high interest to the reader achieved its goal.

Components of the guide which attracted above average attention were "The Job Chart" (over 90%), "Questions Employers Ask" and "The Job of Job Finding" (over 80%), "Find Your Interest Code" (quiz), "It Pays to Advertise", and "So You're Applying For a Job" (over 70%). Thus the features of the guide which attracted the most readers were those related to occupational choice and finding a job.

There were a few areas where a difference in reaction between men and women is apparent:

a) More women than men "read most" of the article "Questions Employers Ask."
b) Women "noted" and "read some" of "Be Your Own Boss" less than did men. However, about the same percentage of women as men "read most" of the article.
c) Substantially more women than men "noted", "read some", and "read most" of the article "Sex Doesn't Matter Anymore" (dealing with non-traditional jobs for both women and men).
d) More women than men "read most" of the section "Need More Help?"

Even sections of the guide which attracted less attention still were noted by half or more of all readers. Only one article had a "read most" score of less than 20% (only 18% of women "read most" of the article on "Private Vocational Schools").

B. *Hitchhikers*

64% of the respondents said that they were likely to have use for *Jobs For Your Future*

54% said that another member of their immediate family would have use for it

53% said they would keep it for further reference; another 21% said they would give it to someone else

40% said the Quiz was helpful to them

27% said they learned something new about themselves as a result of taking the Quiz

25% played the Career Action Game; 32% of these played it more than once

The articles found most helpful were:

Questions Employers Ask (40%; men 35%, women 46%)
The Job of Job Finding (30%)
Focus on the Future (23%)
Be Your Own Boss (21%)

47% learned something new from the Job Chart

27% obtained information from the Getting Qualified section which they did not previously have (men 23%, women 30%)

49% would not have known where to obtain this information without the pamphlet (men 43%, women 55%)

23% obtained information from the Need More Help section which they did not previously have (men 16%, women 29%)

45% will be able to use the information in *Jobs For Your Future* in their own career planning.

Further analysis of the "hitchhiker" questions yielded some significant differences among readers based upon age and employment status.

a) *Likelihood of Use*

— Youth are most likely to have a use for such a publication (79%).
— However, people between the ages of 25 and 44 are also likely to use it (60%).
— Even among those 45 and older, 41% indicated they were likely to have a use for it.
— With regard to employment status, the likelihood of use is ranked as follows (average is 64%):

92% — full-time students
83% — unemployed, looking for work
60% — unemployed (includes those not looking for work)
57% — employed (includes part-time)
49% — employed full-time

— Although those employed full-time are less likely to have a use for it, almost half reported that they would.

b) *Article Found Most Helpful*

— The top two articles for all age groups were "The Job of Job Finding" and "Questions Employers Ask".
— Interest in self-employment increased with age (from 12% for 15-24 year olds to 23% for those over 44).
— While generally low for all age groups, interest in non-traditional occupations did increase with age (from 8% for 15-24 year olds to 21% for those over 44).
— The unemployed looking for work are more interested in self-employment (32%) and full-time students are less interested (15%).
— Full-time students did not find the article on non-traditional occupations helpful (1%).

c) *Information Gained From Job Chart*

— Full-time students (73%) and the unemployed looking for work (56%) were most likely to obtain new information from the job chart.

d) *Previous Awareness of Information*

— Older readers were less likely to have known where to obtain information without the booklet (29% for those over 44).
— Full-time students were more likely to have known where to obtain information (59%).

e) *Usefulness in Personal Career Planning*

— The personal usefulness declines with age. The following are the percentages of response to the question "Will you be able to use the information in *Jobs For Your Future* in your own career planning?" (average is 45%)

15 - 24 years	55%
25 - 34 years	49%
35 - 44 years	36%
45 years +	30%

— In spite of the declining percentages, it must be noted that 30% of those over 45 *would* be able to use it.
— Full-time students (68%) and the unemployed looking for work (63%) have a higher rate of usefulness for it.

2. Requests for Free Pamphlets

Over 2,800 requests for pamphlets were received via the form "Please Send Me . . ." The most frequently requested pamphlets were "New Skills for Women" (a guide to training in technology and the skilled trades), "Apprenticeship and You" (Ontario apprenticeship programs), and "Learning at your own pace by correspondence" (basic information on correspondence courses in Ontario).

3. Reader Response Forms

2,368 reader response forms were returned. As these were voluntary returns — not a random sample — the results cannot be generalized beyond those who returned the form.

The responses indicate that the guide received multiple usage, i.e. one or more of educational planning, occupational choice, job search, and advising someone else. 60% of those who replied were female. 50% of those who replied were under 25 years of age. (The converse of this is that 50% of the respondents were not "youth" which confirms the expectation that the guide's usefulness would not be limited to young people.) The youngest respondents were 10 (two) and the oldest was 98! While 36% of the respondents were students (mostly high school), 64% were not. 80% of the respondents said that the written material in the guide was about right in degree of complexity.

The articles rated highest in usefulness by the respondents were:

Questions Employers Ask
The Job Chart
Getting Qualified
The Job of Job Finding
Need More Help?

These ratings vary from the Starch readership results by indicating a greater interest in further education and information. The difference might be explained by the fact that most reader response forms were returned in conjunction with a request for pamphlets, as the two forms were printed back-to-back.

Summary

Overall, the contents of *Jobs For Your Future* proved to be very useful to a large percentage of readers (64% said they were likely to have use for it; 45% said they would be able to use it in their own career planning). Retention value of the publication is high (74% said they would either keep it for fur-

ther reference or give it to someone else). Many people obtained information from the guide which they did not previously have and would not have known where to obtain (47% learned something new from the Job Chart; 49% would not have known where to obtain information about "Getting Qualified" without the booklet).

The most popular sections of the guide were related to occupational information (The Job Chart); seeking a job (The Job of Job Finding, Questions Employers Ask, It Pays to Advertise and So You're Applying for a Job); and career planning (Find Your Interest Code).

Some differences between reactions of men and women were apparent. Women were more interested than men in non-traditional occupations (Sex Doesn't Matter Anymore). Women showed somewhat more interest than men in Questions Employers Ask in Interviews. Women showed somewhat less interest in self-employment than men (Be Your Own Boss). Women were more likely than men to obtain information which they did not previously have and to not have known where to obtain the information.

Unemployed people looking for work and full-time students especially reported that they were likely to have use for *Jobs For Your Future* in their career planning and that they obtained new information from the job chart. Although rates of usefulness declined with age, there was still strong interest from adult age groups.

The response to the general distribution of *Jobs For Your Future* indicates that it has been helpful to large numbers of people in multiple ways. Comments on content indicate that there is great interest in the community at large in information about occupations, how to find a job, career planning, and educational planning. The facts that many people obtained information which they did not previously have and would not have known where to obtain, and that people of all ages find the information to be useful, indicate that the guide has fulfilled its purpose.

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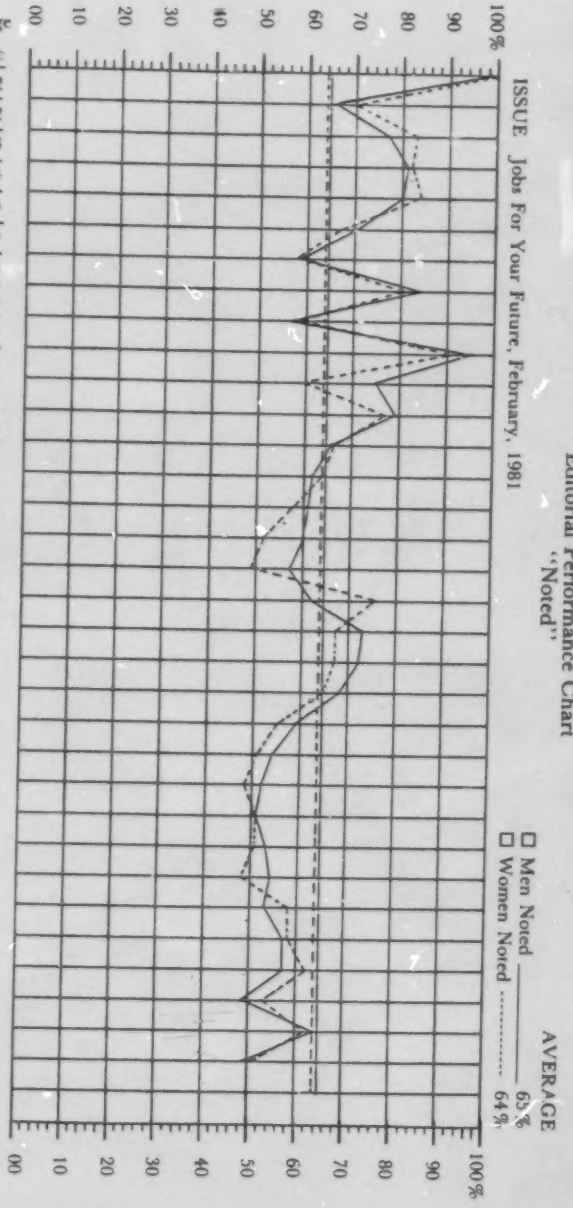

Canadian Values Inventory and Future Research

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In a presentation made by Catherine Casserly, she describes the development of the Canadian Values Inventory and cites the results of the pilot studies that have been carried out. A few changes and checks still have to be made, but we already have an instrument that will soon be used to study the values of a considerable number of Canadians, and thanks to which a vast amount of information will be gathered on the importance that our fellow countrymen and women attach to certain values in their lives in general and also in their work roles.

I would now like to discuss some ways in which this instrument can be used. And since we are gathered at this national symposium to exchange ideas and information about our studies on the theme of employment counselling research, I will limit myself to discussing the instrument's potential value for research. I must first emphasize the importance of values in the organization and functioning of the personality. I will then endeavour to single out a number of questions which call for research, questions concerning the links between values and the importance of work as well as the relationship between personal and vocational development.

The importance of values

In an article entitled "Psychological Studies of Values", Dukes (1955) reviewed the research done into values over the previous forty years. In examining the empirical literature of the twelve years that followed, I (Bujold, 1967) found that the results of the studies published during this period largely supported the results of the studies surveyed by Dukes. In 1967, more than half a century of research revealed to us that there exists a relationship between values, on the one hand, and intellectual and perceptual processes, on the other, as well as between interests, personality and modes of adjustment. The links, however, are complex: in relation to the variables I have just mentioned, values appear sometimes as determinants, sometimes as concomitants and sometimes

as resultants. The review of this research brought to light (Bujold, 1967) the importance of taking into account not only the values professed by people but also the organization of those values, the way they influence people, the perceptions that people have of them, the sources from which they are drawn, and the influences that transform them or lead to their being replaced.

In a later study on the role of self image, people's occupational concepts, and reality concepts in the career choice of French-speaking boys in high school, I was able to pay particular attention to the extent to which the perception the subjects had of their values influenced their choice. The results suggest that adolescents attribute the values that they *perceive* as their own to the members of the occupation they are thinking of choosing. The results are consistent with the importance that Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad and Herma (1951) assigned to the role of values in career choice, and with the emphasis that Katz (1963, pp 15-16) put on values in the decision-making process leading to career choice.

Other results of my study (Bujold, 1972) indicate that as early as Grade IX students transpose their values into career goals, which suggests, as do the results obtained by Gribbons and Lohnes (1968, p 10), that values play an important role in career planning even in early adolescence, and that counsellors should pay more attention than they do to the value systems of adolescents.

In a recent book of values and educational choices, Perron (1981) starts from theoretical conceptions and studies that have been done, in particular on values in relation to personality and behaviour, and goes on to describe the work that he and his colleagues have been doing for more than a decade on the value of work, education and leisure. He recalls (p 7) the studies that support the decision-making model proposed by Heath, according to which values that are central to the individual assure continuity in choices of action from one situation to the next, whereas peripheral values enable a person to be flexible and variable when situations require different interpretations. The review of various studies leads him to the conclusion (p 13) that values, seen as standards, are used to govern certain aspects of human activity, that because they are organized into a system, they play a useful role in conflict solving and decision making, and that they influence motivation.

As far as adolescents are concerned, Perron notes (pp 25-26) that because values take root and develop during adolescence and because they make it possible to identify important differences between students in relation to sex, educational level, age, field of study and career aims, the study of values is a promising line of approach to describing and understanding the choices that students make during the course of their studies. According to Perron (p 169), the results of his own research provide further confirmation of the idea that

values "play a central role in the processes of decision-making, maturation and differentiation, which in turn contribute directly to the building up of identity and individuality in adolescence".

The brief description I have just given of the place of values in human behaviour is enough to remind us that they are especially important variables in the study of human beings. But the mass of data accumulated over the years, however great it may be, is no justification for complacency among those who are interested in the complex mechanisms underlying the relationship between values and some other variables or the significance of the relationships between values themselves. On that subject, I would now like to point out several avenues of research in which the Canadian Inventory, which will soon be available, may be useful.

Values and the meaning of work

Super (1981), along with others, has shown that roles such as those of student, citizen, and worker can enable people to actualize their values, and this suggests that people can find ways of living according to their value systems and achieving some sort of balance by choosing roles that allow them to express certain values or by taking on roles that are perhaps not familiar to them (eg, volunteer work) but which are open to them and satisfy other values. Pursuing the development of various models for clarifying the link between values and the importance of various roles, Super (1981) notes that the importance of certain values and the degree to which they are satisfied in a role may be a means of measuring the importance of a given role for self-actualization.

Clearly, the Canadian Values Inventory could be a valuable tool for research along the lines of Super's models. But the problem of the relationship between values and the importance of a given role presents numerous other complexities, which would be interesting and worthwhile to study and even more to resolve. To cite only a few examples, in a study conducted by the Association des femmes diplômées des universités du Québec (1968) and in another by Bédard (1970), it was found that women whose educational and social levels were relatively high showed less interest in work *as such* than in the advantages it could provide. These results contrast with those of another study done by Benmouyal-Acoca (1978) with women from a humbler background with average schooling. They also differ from the observations made by the graduate students in one of my seminars, who interviewed workers doing tasks that are, if we refer to Wolfbein's (1964) classification, geared more to maintaining society than to self-actualization. The students found that, for most of the people interviewed during these brief surveys, work was important and contributed to their self-actualization.

As I have already pointed out (Bujold, 1980), data on people with education and social advantages support the hypothesis that there can come a time when work loses its importance for those who are in a position to get the most satisfaction from it and who are the most likely to gain fulfilment through it. But at the same time this raises several questions: is the importance that work can have for people with less education and a humbler social background the reflection of a hope of improving their situation through work and therefore the expression of a purely utilitarian value? Is the concept of self-actualization in keeping with the hypothesis that for people whose cognitive structure and value system are less complex, even a simple task provides a springboard for finding fulfilment and giving meaning to their lives? What moderating variables can be used to explain that a satisfying job can become more and more important, or at least keep its importance, for some people and lose it for others? Can these differences be explained simply by a change in certain values, or are there particular schemas, certain value "patterns", that influence the importance that work can take on?

As Perron (1981, p 12) has pointed out, the complexity of the relationship between values and roles is also illustrated by the fact that two different individuals may find the same value satisfied by completely opposite situations, or different values satisfied by the same situation. In a study done by Ouellet and Perron in 1979, as Perron reminds us, it was found that in their leisure time, students who set an equally high value on risk participate in very different activities. Some see sports as connected with status and ambition, whereas others regard them as being linked to freedom and the quality of personal relationships.

What has just been said about leisure undoubtedly holds for work, and research into these questions would help to clarify the decidedly complex role that values play in behaviour. Of course, this undertaking would require a variety of mechanisms, but an instrument that measures relatively large number of values and enables comparisons of data to be made within a vast population would be a valuable tool. The Canadian Values Inventory already has those qualities and could be that tool.

Vocational and personal development

The problem of the relationship between vocational and personal development is still, to my mind, one of the most interesting in occupational psychology. This problem has often been touched on and conceptualized, but the sometimes contradictory nature of the conceptualization is, it seems to me, one of the reasons for studying the dynamics of the relationship or interrelationship between the vocational aspects and what may be called the general aspects of development. I will not attempt to present an exhaustive review

of the literature on this question. Instead, I will confine myself to identifying or recalling certain concepts, in order to indicate what contribution to a study of this problem could be made by the values inventory developed as part of the Work Importance Study.

For Super (1957), who sees occupational choice as involving the transposition and actualization of one's self-image, vocational development is a specific aspect of personal development. According to Erikson (1959), however, the choice of one's career may be considered to influence almost all aspects of one's self-image. The adolescent's need to reorganize his or her "self" is imposed by the changes taking place at puberty and other factors, but the push forward or the direction that the reorganization takes is determined by the young person's career plans and aspirations for the adult role.

The links between the personal and vocational aspects of development were brought out by Friend (1973). Drawing on research data, she demonstrated that the processes of discovering one's identity and occupational role merge and are mutually supportive, and that this reciprocity helps to ensure continuity in development and good integration. This happens, for example, when occupational role reinforces self-esteem and permits a person to find a place in which he or she has a sense of belonging.

Neff (1968), however, has presented a conceptualization of the relationship between vocational and personal development that seems to contrast with the views just mentioned. For him, a person's work personality is a system of interrelated elements such as motives, models of adjustment and defence mechanisms for coping with the demands of his or her job. And the relationship between this work personality, which emerges from a long process of differentiation, and the personality as a whole is one of "semi-autonomy", to use Neff's term. To support this conception, he points to the fact that a person can be disturbed in one part of his personality but function adequately in others, and he gives the example of certain persons who may function very poorly at work but passably well in other situations. In the same vein, he notes that psychotherapy might improve functioning in one part of the personality without, however, changing the situation in others.

The problem of the relationship between personal and vocational development may also be posed in terms of the relationship between work and love. This is the method of approach used by Rohrlich (1980) in his highly interesting book entitled *Work and Love: The Crucial Balance*, in which he endeavours to determine the ideal balance between work and other aspects of our lives such as love, leisure and play. In Rohrlich's view, love and work call for contrasting frames of mind and what is required to succeed in work is exactly the opposite of what is required to succeed in love. He considers that the problem confronting each individual is to arrive at the most satisfactory compro-

mise. However, he suggests (p 245) that "by understanding this predicament, inspecting its sources, and gaining insight into the inner dynamics of work and love, we may be better equipped to approach our own crucial balances."

Given the place that values have in the personality, as I have pointed out, they are likely to provide an ideal avenue of approach to studying the problem of the relationship between the vocational and general aspects of development. The Canadian Values Inventory is particularly suited to this kind of study since, for each value, it includes some items that are general and others that are specific to work. The variety of comparisons that such an instrument makes possible could pave the way for an in-depth examination of a problem on which few studies have been done to date.

Conclusion

The work that has been going on for more than two years to develop a Canadian Values Inventory has already given us — an assorted team — the opportunity of a highly stimulating experience. But even after only an overview of the research problems confronting us, which this instrument may help to solve, it is clear to me that for those of us who are interested in acquiring a thorough understanding of the role of values and their implications for counselling the most exciting studies remain to be done.

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New Directions in Life Skills?

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We were not, in Canada, looking for new directions for Life Skills.

We thought, and still think, that we know the skills necessary to become a balanced, self-determined person. The skills are listed very carefully for us in Paul Smith's book: *A Taxonomy of the Life Skills Required to Become a Balanced, Self-Determined Person* — and the list is exhaustive. And certainly people who are leading successful lives have at least most of the skills. The point is, of course, that people who need Life Skills lessons need to be taught them.

As I have stated, the list of skills is very long, but in forming new lessons, practicality forces us to be selective. Consulting with each other we tried to decide: if there is only one skill, or one set of skills we can teach, which is or are the central one(s)?

And along with everyone else in the world, we decided that the most important skills are Human Relations skills. But we questioned that Human Relation skills can be taught in a short period of time, or, in fact, if any skills are better than the self-confidence and self-esteem of the person who uses them.

We were up against the problem that has always been fundamental in Life Skills as well as whatever preceded them. Paul Smith, in his book, states:

> Personality characteristics and attitudes play an important role in determining the extent to which individuals will use skills and manage their lives. Self-confidence, self-worth, enthusiasm, a sense of purpose, initiative, the will to succeed and motivation are all factors which can intervene . . . to influence the use or non-use of skills[1].

Later, he writes:

> Life Skills literature has long recognized that the successful practice and use of new skills and behaviour influences factors like confidence and willingness to use skills[2].

So there it was. If we could provide participants with skills and they could practise them, the feedback from the practice would assure the student a meas-

ure of self-esteem as well as the continued use of the new skills. But we know from experience that lack of self-esteem is an overpowering negative in the lives of our students which effectively prevents them from learning the skills in the first place and practising them in the second.

There you are. If you have self-confidence and self-esteem, you can use and learn the skills and thus acquire more. If you don't have any self-confidence or self-esteem, you may, in a limited sense, learn the skills but you will never use them and then you will have even less self-confidence and esteem. To those who have shall be given and from those who have not shall be taken even that which they have.

Clearly, it is necessary to break the cycle. That students should acquire a sense of self-esteem seems central — not even a new idea. But how? People cannot be ordered to have self-esteem. And they cannot be instructed in its acquisition. Certainly, it cannot be taught in the first lesson so that it becomes available for use with future skills yet to be learned. Good or poor self-esteem reflects more a habit of mind than a skill that has or has yet to be acquired. You do not get a habit of mind, we reasoned, by learning, the Attending Behaviours.

What we need to develop is a structured experience, over time, that would acquaint people first-hand with success — if the success were in an area of primary concern to the individual's positive self-image and where the individual was/is at present performing in a way that brings him/her profound dissatisfaction. In other words, we reasoned that the success with the most immediate impact would be one that would demonstrate a way of overcoming self-limiting behaviours, which are always a reason for which people lack self-esteem. The first step in breaking the poor self-confidence/poor performance cycle which particularly afflicts Life Skills students, would be to show participants how to overcome destructive behaviours and fears within themselves. Then, with the self-confidence acquired by succeeding in one important area of their lives, there would be far less reason for them to fear dealings with the world. Such an experience, we reasoned, would develop an increased sense of control and a corresponding sense of responsibility. And a sense of responsibility is, of course, a highly prized quality and not just within the realm of Life Skills.

We all know — through direct experience — that people are aware of the fact when they lack self-confidence and self-esteem. Each of us is sensitive to the particular behaviour or behaviours, and I include habits of mind, which are self-defeating and which we all face quite often and, sadly acknowledge, prevent us from becoming the very superior and whole people we are all secretly convinced we could be. The difference between most people and the typical Life Skills student is that, in the latter, the situation has deteriorated to the

point where the self-confidence/self-enhancing behaviours function with dismal infrequency.

So we know what we want to do: we want to help Life Skills students overcome a particular, chosen self-limiting behaviour, one that is not only preventing them from participating at their best but whose frequent performance in itself induces self-hatred and all the emotions and attitudes which are the opposite of self-respect.

We were determined to find or develop such a system to be run in tandem with, I should explain, and not instead of, the usual Life Skills Lessons. But at the same time we have had to acknowledge to ourselves a deep concern or uncertainty, over the possible negative role, in such a program, of the participant's environment.

Along with other people in the Western world, we are worried about the incidence of crime, alcoholism, drug abuse and other evils which appear to be particularly high amongst the people for whom a multitude of financial and other aid programs have been set up to prevent just such self and socially destructive behaviours.[3] There exist in Western society, cynics who maintain that these programs, at bottom, represent a guilty sense of responsibility on the part of those people who do well and that the result has been increasing dependency and passivity on the part of those who are supposed to benefit from them. Some of these cynics are themselves non-passive recipients of Welfare programs. In addition, there is a decreased sense of responsibility even about dishonest and criminal behaviour on the part of the Disadvantaged, which finds its justification in what these critics see as the implied acknowledgement of guilt by the part of society which pays for social aid programs. It being the judgment of these critics that these monies and their recipients have a strong tendency to cluster in slums and that slums, in turn, breed crime, alcoholism, drug abuse and a variety of other socially undesirable behaviours. None of these arguments convinced us that Welfare schemes are innately evil and undesirable. Self-destructive behaviours after all, are certainly not limited to officially-recognized poor environments. In fact, all of us are often happy to slough off the responsibility for our behaviour on the fact that, as we all know, society stinks and the world is all wrong.

Concerned as we are, we have had to acknowledge that with all the good will in the world there is no way we can eliminate unsatisfactory environments. We are stuck with living with, and in them.

At a certain point I came across a self-analysis/self-help system called *Eliminate Your SDBs, self-defeating behaviors*[4] developed by Dr. Jonathon Chamberlain at Brigham Young University in Utah.

It seemed and seems to us that this system can be modified for use in Life Skills classes. Although it appears to have been developed originally with lit-

erate, middle-class university students, it has also been used successfully with prison inmates.

This system assumes that everyone has (or does) Self-Defeating Behaviours and that each of us at any given point chooses to do these behaviours and that these are the very behaviours, with all their multiplicity of undesirable spin-offs, which prevent us from responding to, and dealing with life at our effective best. And the proposition that each of us has an effective best is never, for a moment, in doubt. Support for the idea that we all choose negative behaviours is found in the obvious fact that they are maladaptive in the present environment although they were probably useful at an earlier time[5]. (They are held in place by fear: the original fear that activated them, making them valid at that time, and fear of not being able to respond without them). Looked at this way, the argument that any environment inevitably provokes or imposes Self-Defeating Behaviours simply does not stand up.

To diverge for a moment and to review the discussion of the reactions to welfare schemes in this new light is to question whether passivity, irresponsibility, crime and chemical dependency are the only possible responses an individual may make. Is it possible for people to choose other responses? If it is not, then there is certainly something very wrong with the whole idea of welfare programs. Millions of people, of course, do not react passively or criminally, do not develop chemical dependencies and are able to take responsibility for their actions.

(One member of my staff argues that, in our society, being on Welfare is a result, a price, as it were, that one pays for doing passive and irresponsible behaviour. Even further, the argument goes that being on Welfare is, itself, a Self Defeating Behaviour characteristically held in place by a fear of responding to the world without it and not being certain of the results of a better behaviour. This is quite simply not the case. The fact of receiving Welfare is an aspect of the environment and, as with any other, one may choose to feel humiliated and hopeless or one may choose to feel a healthy and sensible reassurance that this is an honourable means of keeping body and soul together).

For everyone, the welfare client as well as the captain of industry, the question must arise as to whether, if there is an insistence that we all choose our behaviours, there is a denial of the importance of the environment. This cannot, naturally, be the case because the environment is always there, like the weather, and cannot be ignored: sometimes we respond adaptively and sometimes we do not. But the fact is that every environment is, in some degree, negative: the whole point about Paradise, when you think about it, is that in contrast to Earth, the environment is perfect. To be alive is to be solving problems. It is useless to blame the problem because we fail to solve it.

Whether or not one chooses to accept the philosophical implications of this

program, it has had a high degre of success because it does not, after all, depend simply on everyone's developing a new philosophy. It actively starts the individual on a series of practical steps designed to eliminate the Self-Defeating Behaviour. These steps include monitoring the incidence of the undesirable behaviour, the search for and use of a positive self-label and an examination of the price we all pay for demonstrating self-destructive behaviours.

At this point, the philosophy behind the program begins to become apparent to the student. Up to this point, the individual is willing, in part, to hang on to the old behaviour because the results, whatever they may be, seem familiar and well-known: it is very frightening to make another choice when the results, maybe even the price, are unknown. At this point, where the student must make a serious study of the results, it becomes clear that wherever and however the behaviour had its genesis, the price, as they say, is ridiculous. Further, people become aware that, just before performing their Self-Defeating Behaviour, everyone tends to minimize the price to themselves or to hope that somehow, this time, they will get a bargain. This part of the program is crucial. At this point, the individual becomes aware of cause and effect at work in his/her life. The idea is the essence of responsibility.

Responsibility is not an entirely appealing notion. Everyone possesses a multitude of techniques for disowning responsibility for their negative feelings and behaviours. The next step the program offers is a variety of ways for studying disowning techniques — which is simply another way of looking at more cause and effect. What is of at least equal interest and probably of more importance is the fact that the program also offers more practical techniques for eliminating the undesired disowning behaviours.

We anticipate that this program offers another big plus for Life Skills. It does provide participants with an opportunity to make a giant gain in self-respect and to gain a perspective on personal responsibility. In addition, it can be used — as it unfolds — as a paradigm for problem-solving. And, in fact, it is being so used in the lessons which are being designed.

Nothing is perfect and this program, while containing many elements which are highly desirable, poses some serious problems from the point of view of Life Skills, both in the matter of its content and its presentation.

The first is the denial of the part of the environment in sustaining the Self-Defeating Behaviour. No environment imposes a maladaptive response but unquestionably some environments are more insistent than others. (In an example Dr. Chamberlain gives, he quotes a man who was tortured by the Nazis, certainly a highly insistent environment, as explaining that maintenance of the correct mindset is the key to resistance. We are not anticipating that participants are necessarily the stuff of which martyrs and heroes are made). There is no doubt that an environment can conspire to give one a deceptive label

and not only if one is on Welfare: Hollywood stars are constantly warned against believing their own publicity. If we remember that many Life Skills participants are also recipients of some kind of state aid, we have to remember, as I mentioned earlier, that in a sense they are being forced into a situation where everyone insists that they are basically unable to help themselves. This is, of course, one reason why it is essential that these individuals have a direct experience in doing so. It is also a reason why support from the Coach and persistent use of the positive label are important.

Another concern is that with the heavy emphasis upon inner choice, participants will substitute a sense of guilt for a sense of responsibility. Along with almost all other psychotherapies, this one repeatedly makes the point that this Behaviour which now causes so much that is bad in the individual's life, was once a valid defense. No one denies that an environment can be threatening; that parents, teachers, church and community can produce discomfort so acute that protective behaviours are necessary and adaptive. No blame, therefore, attaches to the behaviour. And none should be attached to the person who uses it. These facts are acknowledged repeatedly and must be offered, in reassurance, repeatedly. The program is designed to lead people to a comprehension at the gut level that the present environment does not require the Behaviour which is now Self-Defeating.

A serious difficulty from the point of view of the Life Skills course is that this program assumes a relatively high level of literacy. It requires that participants keep a detailed daily diary and in other places asks that they cover pages and pages with a careful description of how they demonstrate their Self-Defeating Behaviour, the prices they pay and so on. Many Life Skills candidates do not have highly developed literacy skills. We reasoned that this deficiency — if such it be — was no reason that people could not participate as effectively as their more scholastic cousins in the process of thinking about, monitoring and perceiving the price they pay for their Self-Defeating Behaviour. We are in the process of developing a workbook where the daily diary is simplified to a tick under a picture depicting home or workplace, leisure activities and so on, and opposite, a series of clocks indicating the hour. In this way, participants can monitor incidence of the Behaviour and, as progress is made, diminishing incidence.

Instead of writing lengthy descriptions of how they come to demonstrate their Self-Defeating Behaviours, participants may choose to make a series of simple drawings. Upon consideration, we decided that if each of us had to draw a picture of ourselves, it would require rather more thought than unlimited scribblings; a picture is worth a thousand words, remember. Since no one but the participant ever sees the workbook, there is no need to strive for artistic elegance — although one sighs to think of the possible Picassos

or wonderful primitives which may be lost to the world in the name of confidentiality. When we arrive at the point where the participants must make use of labels, we will provide them in the workbook. Each page will carry a sketched designation as well as a written one. In fact, we are doing everything possible to minimize the need for literacy skills. There is no reason why one must be a high school graduate or a university student in order to build some self-esteem.

Nor are our simplification plans confined to the student's workbook. An objective we hope to achieve in this particular program, and one that has, for a long time, been in the minds of our Life Skills lesson designers, is an improved format in the Coach's manual. We suspect that, in the past, much good material has never been used because it is buried in the middle of solid and forbidding-looking text. The first step we are planning is to break up the text by the use of different sorts of type, well-spaced. The other innovation is that lesson material which we believe *must* be covered be written on the left-hand page; extra, explanatory material, additional examples and exercises, on the right. If there is text on the left-hand page, there is none on the right and vice versa. With this format, the Coach can grasp very quickly the thrust of the lesson (although this is given in capsule form at the beginning) and can decide to add or eliminate material at the last minute. By the use of this format, we hope to ensure that Coaches can approach teaching a lesson with improved confidence.

So you can see that this project does not represent new directions for the Life Skills movement. It does not even embody any new ideas. Jonathon Chamberlain's system shows a similarity to Rational Emotive Therapy. There is a distinction without a difference between Ellis' telling people that they "talk to themselves" in order to stay unhappy and Chamberlain's insistence that they make an "inner choice". There is also some commonality with Neuro Linguistic Programming which maintains that the desired outcome of therapy is to allow the individual to choose how to react. Above all, this program shares, with all the great humanitarian philosophies, a profound respect for the intrinsic worth and unique potential of every individual.

And certainly, our goals are not new. There has never been a moment since the inception of the Life Skills movement when the development of self-esteem has not been regarded as a priority. What is *possibly* new is that our project concerns itself centrally with developing self-esteem. Self-esteem is not a spin-off or a given. Self-esteem is the issue — because it is important to us that our Life Skills students learn to face life with confidence, the sort described by Mark Twain: the calm confidence of a Christian with four aces.

[1]Paul Smith. *The Development of a Taxonomy of the Life Skills Required to Become a Balanced Self-Determined Person.* Ottawa, Employment and Immigration Canada. 1981 p. 33

[2]*Ibid.*

[3]Auletta, Ken. "The Underclass', *New Yorker Magazine*, November 16, p. 63, November 23, p. 72 and November 30, p. 101.

[4]Chamberlain, Jonathon M. *Eliminate your SDBs*, self-defeating behaviors,* Provo, Utah. Brigham Young University Press, c1978, 192 p. Also available in cassette form: *Defeat your self-defeating behaviors.* Salt Lake City, Utah: Covenant Recordings Incorporated, 1979. Four sound cassettes.

[5]The basic rationale is the argument for free-will: If I can only respond as the environment demands — a response which it is impossible to specify — or if I cannot choose my behaviour, why am I standing here addressing a bunch of automato?

The Ten Tasks of the Assessment Component of Employment Counselling (ACEC): A Goal-Setting Process

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The setting of clear goals by the counsellor and client is most important for effective employment counselling interventions.

This presentation of the ACEC (the setting of employment counselling goals) is based upon the book entitled, *The Assessment Component of Employment Counselling*, written for the Employment Counselling Division of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission by Dr. Philip J. Patsula of the University of Ottawa.

The term "assessment component of employment counselling" refers to a particular collaborative, clarifying, *goal-setting* counselling process used in the CEIC servicing of non-job-ready clients. The process involves a meeting between an employment counsellor and a non-job-ready client with focus upon the assisting of the client to identify and to commit him/herself to a relevant counselling goal or action plan directed at effective job placement. The ACEC activity is seen as an important preliminary step to subsequent counselling or other CEIC intervention services.

It is to be noted that, although the identification of the needs of all CEC clients is of paramount concern, emphasis within the ACEC is on the identification of needs for those employee-clients who are judged to be non-job-ready. Sample general indicators that an individual is non-job-ready are:

1. Individual evidences a multiple trial career pattern (the situation in which the individual has had a number of trial jobs without any kind of work constituting a sufficiently prolonged or dominant type of employment to establish a career);
2. Individual's employment record depicts long periods of unemployment, although trained in an occupation in which demand for workers is high;
3. Counsellor is reluctant to refer the client to available job openings;
4. Individual lacks firm occupational choice;
5. Individual is deemed to be unrealistic in his/her occupational choice;
6. Individual requests training, testing, or diagnostic services; and

7. Individual has reduced working capacity.

There are five phases in the ACEC. These are:

1. establish a collaborative relationship;
2. identify the client's employment concern;
3. identify the constraints which the client perceives to be preventing him/her from dealing with the concern;
4. assist the client to restate the constraints in the form of a contingency statement; and finally,
5. translate the contingency statement into a counselling goal of action plan.

These five phases may be subdivided into the ten tasks of the ACEC as depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1

ACEC Relationship

1. Initiate an ongoing collaborative *relationship* (partnership) of mutual respect.

Employment Concern

2. Elicit from client a statement of employment issue or *concern*.

Employment Constraint

3. Assist client in analysing and clarifying the concern in order that she/he can state the concern in the form of a constraint statement, i.e. "I cannot do 'A', because of 'B' ".
4. Relate purpose of the assessment component of employment counselling.
5. Assist client in clarifying the content and feeling components of his/her constraint statement.
6. Assist client in evaluating/clarifying her/his strengths and barriers in relation to the expressed employability constraint.
7. Assist client in clarifying the underlying value or assumption within his/her constraint statement by:
   a) assisting client in identifying and stating the underlying value or assumption;

b) assisting client in judging such value or assumption as constructive or as self-defeating;
c) assisting client in formulating and in committing him/herself to a more productive value or assumption when the identified value or assumption has been judged to be self-defeating.

Employment Contingency

8. On the basis of the productive value held, assist the client in formulating a contingency statement, using the form, "I do 'A', then I must . . ."
9. Assist client in clarifying the contingency statement by testing and validating the contingency statement as being realistic and responsible and as reflecting a stated action to which the client is committed; reformulate if necessary.

Employment Counselling Goal

10. Assist client in translating the selected contingency statement into a mutually-agreed upon employment counselling goal or action plan on which the client is committed to work.

These ten tasks represent the work of the counsellor but there are ten corresponding tasks for the client as well. These are depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2

The Ten Tasks to be Accomplished by the Client within the Assessment Component of Employment Counselling

1. Experience a positive atmosphere in which the counsellor is perceived as willing to be of assistance in a partnership manner.
2. State employment-related concerns and select one concern on which to work.
3. Elaborate the concern into terms which not only include what cannot be done but, also, why it cannot be done (constraint).
4. Obtain clarity as to the purpose of the interview. Arrive at sufficient con-

sistency between own expectations and the expectations of the counsellor concerning the purpose, in order to be able to commit efforts to the stated purpose of the interview, i.e., arriving at a mutually agreed upon counsellor goal or action plan.

5. Obtain greater clarity as to the actual constraint and personal response to the constraint.
6. Evaluate employability strengths and barriers in relation to the constraint.
7. Examine possible unspoken assumptions which colour the constraint; replace unwanted assumptions and revise view of employability concern and constraint.
8. List ways of overcoming barriers and using strengths in overcoming employment constraint; select probable resolution of constraint.
9. Evaluate the selected resolution in the light of: employment/employability strengths and barriers; values; outside factor, e.g., services available, labour market conditions; and commitment.
10. State a specific counselling goal or action plan dealing with a relevant employment concern. Dealt with within the goal are initial steps to be taken, to which the client is committed.

Let us now view the ten ACEC tasks in more detail. The *first task* of the counsellor is to establish a positive collaborative relationship with the client. To establish and to maintain such a relationship, the following skills are most useful:

— Attending
— Non-verbal communication
— Questioning
— Paraphrasing
— Reflection of feeling
— Empathy
— Respect

These and certain related skills are demonstrated in the films: *Tuning In, Intentional Attending and Client Counsellor Relationships and Other Things That Go Bump.*

Within the *second task* of the ACEC, the client is asked what his/her employment concern is (i.e., what has prompted the client to come for an interview) and, thus, arrive at a simple statement of the concern. The concern statement usually takes the form, "I can't . . ."

In the *third task*, the client is prompted to elaborate the statement of employment concern to include the perceived constraint. The constraint statement usually takes the form, "I can't do 'A' because of 'B'." The course of the problem may be seen as internal ("I can't go for an interview because I am

too nervous'') or external (''No one will hire me because I do not have experience''). This causal statement represents the constraint that the client sees as hindering his/her resolving the employment concern.

It is by this time through contracting by the counsellor and client, that the purpose of the interview is explicitly arrived at. This contracting dimension has been designated as ACEC Task 4, but the actual ordering is not important. The *fourth task* of the ACEC is to ensure that both client and counsellor agree on the purpose of the interview. The task, therefore, is to explain to the client that the purpose of the interview is to discuss the client's employment concern and to arrive at an agreement as to the employment directed goal towards which the counsellor and the client will work.

In the *fifth task*, the counsellor must prompt the client in *self-exploration* to ensure that the client is precise in describing the constraint in terms of feelings, beliefs, and facts. In short, the fifth ACEC task is that of exploring the feelings and contents of the constraint through the paraphrasing and the reflecting of the client's expressed ideas and feelings. It is important that the client be encouraged to be precise in describing the constraint — for example, some people will say they ''can't'' do something when in fact they ''won't'' even try. This type of expression and thinking must be clarified. An important issue that is brought up is that of precision of statement as to who owns the problem. If the client does not accept some *ownership of* his/her employability constraints, then there is little of anything that the client and counsellor can do to resolve the concern.

Providing that the client does accept ownership in whole or in part, for the employment constraint, the *sixth task* is to assist the client in evaluating his/her strengths and barriers in relation to the expressed employability constraint. The employability dimensions that may be operating within a client's employability constraint may be categorized into seven types:

— Motivation/Attitudinal
— Emotional
— Information
— Socio Economic
— Physical
— Education/Skill
— Other

Each of these seven employability types may be subdivided as presented in Figure 3. Through appropriate questioning, feedback, and confrontation by the counsellor, the client can explore any of these dimensions that might contribute to the constraint.

Involved in the *seventh ACEC task*, is the further exploration of the constraint by

a) identifying and describing the underlying value or assumption within the constraint statement. This enables the client to move to the formulation of more concrete more action-oriented, and more internally-oriented consideration of alternatives for change;

b) assisting the client to judge such value or assumption as constructive or self-defeating; and

c) assisting the client in formulating and in committing him/herself to a more productive value or assumption when the identified value or assumption has been judged to be self-defeating. The counsellor may take on more of a teaching role in ensuring that alternate assumptions are generated and that the client is assisted in replacing self-defeating values or assumptions with more productive ones.

In the *eighth task*, the counsellor assists the client in formulating a contingency statement in the form of, "If I am to do 'A', then I must do 'B' ". For example, a client who previously said that he/she could not go for an employment interview because he/she was too nervous at such interviews might now say that if he/she is to go to such interviews he/she must control specified nervous symptoms.

In the *ninth ACEC task*, the counsellor assists the client in clarifying the contingency statement as being realistic, responsible, and reflecting a stated action to which the client is *committed*. The contingency statement formulated in task eight is now validated through its relationship to the reality of the client's strengths and barriers to employment, including the client's work motivation, values, and expectations. It is important that the contingency statement be realistic, relevant, and action-oriented. It is in task nine that the client moves more directly to a course of action to help him/herself become more employable and to get a job.

The *tenth* and final task of the ACEC is to assist the client in translating the selected contingency statement into a mutually agreed upon counselling goal or *action plan* on which the client is committed to work.

A role of the counsellor throughout the whole of the ACEC process is that of *encouraging* the client. Many principles of encouragement could be drawn upon. For example:

1. be aware of the discouragement and encouragement you provide
2. commend effort
3. build on strengths
4. work for improvement
5. provide well defined standards
6. develop self-sufficiency

7. give responsibility and significance
8. separate the deed from the doer
9. reflect feelings
10. show trust
11. focus on movement
12. respect the client
13. begin where the client is
14. take away the stigma of failure
15. develop the courage to be imperfect
16. develop an optimistic approach
17. focus on the task.

Through the ten ACEC tasks outlined, it is assured that the counselling goal or action plan arrived at takes into account:

1. the client's employability strengths and barriers;
2. deals with a relevant employment concern;
3. is reasonably attainable, and
4. worded in as concrete and specific terms as possible.

The client now is ready to proceed on his/her own or to proceed with the counsellor in the intervention component of employment counselling.

Figure 3

Employability Dimensions

I. Motivation/Attitudinal

a) Adaptability/Inflexibility
b) Indecisiveness/Decisiveness
c) Initiative
d) Interests
e) Interpersonal Competence
f) Locus of Control
g) Pessimistic/Optimistic
h) Realistic-Unrealistic Aspirations
i) Responsible/Irresponsible

j) Self-Discipline/Impulsive
k) Sociability
l) Stability of Previous/Present Employment
m) Work Motivation
n) . . .

II. Emotional

a) Aggressiveness
b) Assertiveness/Submissiveness
c) Chemical Dependence
d) Emotional Security/Insecurity
e) Emotional Stability/Instability
f) Enthusiasm/Vitality
g) Judgment
h) Self-Esteem
i) Self-Sufficiency/Emotional Dependency
j) . . .

III. Information

a) Knowledge of CEIC Services
b) Knowledge of Community Resources
c) Knowledge of Labour Market
d) Self-Awareness
e) Vocational Certainty/Uncertainty
f) . . .

IV. Socio-Economic

a) Accommodations
b) Discrimination
   i) age
   ii) race
   iii) health
   iv) sex
   v) prison record
   vi) other
c) General Family Life
d) Geographic Mobility
e) Life-Style
f) Management of Finances

g) Possession/Accessibility of Clothes/Tools/Equipment
h) Transportation
i) . . .

V. Physical

a) Disadvantaged i.e. blind, deaf, amputee, colour vision, learning
b) Grooming and Personal Hygiene
c) Health
d) . . .

VI. Educational/Skill

a) Aptitudes/Abilities
b) Communication Skills
c) Coping Skills
d) Decision-Making Skills
e) Intellectual Ability
f) Job Search Techniques/Methods/Strategies
g) Level of Education/Training/Experience
h) Literacy
i) . . .

VII. Miscellaneous

The Relevance of Various CEIC Training Materials to Life Skills Coach Training[1]

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A current series of research projects, reports, conferences and workshops ended a seven year lull in the developmental aspects of Life Skills training and accordingly, renewed interest in the theory, methodology and application(s) of the Life Skills model. The highlights of recent activities include:

- Publication of *More Life Skills* by Joan Hearn through Occupational and Career Analysis and Development Branch (OCAD) of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC)
- Publication of *A Conceptual Framework for the Life Skills Program* by Dana Mullen (OCAD)
- Publication of *A Taxonomy of the Life Skills Required to Become a Balanced, Self-Determined Person*, by Paul Smith of Sir Sandford Fleming College, Peterborough (OCAD)
- Presentations on Life Skills at two National Consultations — one on Employment Counselling Research, and one on Vocational Counselling (sponsored by CEIC)
- Extensive piloting of Life Skills programs in Ontario Secondary Schools, through the Ministry of Education
- Formation of the Associations of Life Skills Coaches of Ontario (ALSCO) and Alberta
- Life Skills conferences sponsored by ALSCO, with cross-country representation
- Formation of the ALSCO *Select Committee*. Since its formation, the committee, composed of experienced and knowledgeable Life Skills Coaches, has been responsible for the development of:
  - a taxonomy of the skills required to be an effective Life Skills coach;
  - a series of recommendations regarding the training and certification of both Life Skills coaches and Life Skills coach-trainers.
- Formation of the ALSCO Board of Examiners, the Board responsible for the examination and certification of both coaches and coach-trainers.

This present report is intended to describe the results of a further task undertaken by the Select Committee in the summer of 1982. Recommendations which resulted from performance of this task are included at the end of this report.

In May, 1982, the Select Committee examined a number of CEIC-produced counsellor training materials in order to identify those parts of the materials that might be adopted into the development of a Life Skills Coach training program. This task involved the cross-indexing of the required competencies of a Life Skills Coach with the CEIC counsellor competencies and training materials.

Participating committee members included Ann Connors, Rick Jones, Colleen Sharp, Paul Smith and Mickey Wischnewski. Joan Hearn from OCAD represented CEIC.

Prior to beginning the task, the participants reviewed recent developments in Life Skills, reiterated the need to develop a Coach training program and clarified the purpose of the meeting. In particular, it was emphasized that the goal was not to develop a Life Skills Coach training course —i.e. decide on the specific content of the course. Rather, the task was simply to identify CEIC materials which were relevant to Coach training and which therefore *could* be included in a course.

Members then identified assumptions and basic premises to keep in mind while performing the analysis. These included:

1. That the materials identified will be used primarily in training sessions for Life Skills Coach candidates.
2. That Life Skills Coaches work/coach in an adult learning *group*.
3. That the competencies and techniques required to work in groups, as well as individually with clients, are not mutually exclusive and, in fact, overlap.
4. That the General Lists of coach competencies produced by the Select Committee would be used, rather than the Detailed Lists (Appendices I and II).
5. That, in addition to a Coach training course, there is a need for a new book/textbook which includes a history of Life Skills, the required competencies, the goals of training, sample lessons and examples of ways of applying Life Skills to various situations. The book would be a successor to the *Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching*.

The CEIC materials examined included:

1. *The Assessment Component of Employment Counselling — A Goal-Setting Process* by Dr. Philip J. Patsula, University of Ottawa.
2. *Counselling Adults For Decision-Making* by Dr. R. Vance Peavy, Department of Psychological Foundations in Education, University of Victoria.

3. *"Client-Counsellor Relationships and Other Things That Go Bump"* (Audio-Visual tape).
4. *"Groups That Work", Parts I and II* (Audio-Visual tapes).
5. *Individual Employment Counselling, A Systematic Approach* by Lynne Bezanson, Carol DeCoff and Norman Stewart.
6. *"Intentional Listening"* (Audio-Visual tape).

Each of the CEIC materials was examined and discussed in turn and the results of the analysis entered on the following chart. A "Yes" beside a competency number (e.g. 1.1) indicates that part or all of the corresponding CEIC resource material (listed at the top of the chart) relates to the coach competency represented by the competency number. The CEIC materials are not referenced to each of the specific examples which are denoted on the general lists of competencies by small letters of the alphabet. However, these specific examples were used by the committee to clarify their understanding of the various general competencies. These latter competencies were then related to the CEIC materials.

A "No" beside a competency number indicates that the corresponding resource material does not relate to that particular competency. An "S" (secondary) indicates that part or all of the particular CEIC material can best be used to augment other more directly relevant material for a specific competency and/or to provide background information.

When the chart was complete, a list of comments was generated for each of the CEIC materials. These comments follow the chart.

Life Skills Coach Competence	CEIC Resource Material						
	1.	2.	3.	4.A	4.B	5.	6.
1. *HUMAN RELATIONS*							
1.1 Display basic communication skills	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	*	Yes*
1.2 Display personal capacities	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	*	Yes
1.3 Display capacity to help	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	*	Yes
2. *THEORY AND KNOWLEDGE*							
2.1 Knowledge of Life Skills	No	No	No	*No	No	*	No
2.2 Knowledge of role of coach	No	No	No	*No	No	*	No
3. *LESSON PRESENTATION*							
3.1 Display capacity to function effectively with groups	No	No	No	Yes	S	*	No

3.2 Display appropriate teaching skills	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	*	No
3.3 Able to facilitate the acquisition of Life Skills	No	No	No	No	Yes	*	No
3.4 Display personal skills	No	Yes	No	No	No	*	No
4. *PROBLEM SOLVING*							
4.1 Able to employ and teach the five-step problem solving system	S	Yes*	No	S	No	*	No
5. *EVALUATION SKILLS*							
5.1 Identification and evaluation of life skills goals	No	No	No	No	No	*	No
5.2 Assist learners to self-evaluate	S	No	No	No	Yes	*	No
5.3 Evaluate coach's performance	S	No	No	No	No	*	No
6. *LESSON PREPARATION*							
6.1 Able to plan an overall program	No	No	No	No	No	*	No
6.2 Able to plan appropriate lessons	No	No	No	No	No	*	No

*Indicates comment/"qualifier" in next section.

1. The Assessment Component of Employment Counselling — A Goal-Setting Process
2. Counselling Adults for Decision-Making
3. "Client-Counsellor Relationships and Other Things That Go Bump"
4. A "Groups That Work," Part 1
4. B "Groups That Work," Part 2
5. Individual Employment Counselling
6. "Intentional Listening"

Comments

1. *The Assessment Component of Employment Counselling — A Goal-Setting Process*

This book contains many excellent exercises applicable to Life Skills training. The Life Skills competencies addressed by these exercises include those associated with human relations, goal setting, problem solving, and decision-making. In addition, there are exercises related to problem-ownership, "I statements", and contingency planning.

2. *Counselling Adults For Decision-Making*

The committee was very impressed by the style and content of Dr. Peavy's book. The book is easy to read and was viewed as a good "textbook" for counselling and interviewing. The book contains:

- a number of excellent experiential exercises and checklists for use with both coach-training groups and client groups;
- a practical statement of ethics which can be related to both the role of coach and of counsellor; and
- a section on theory which is easy to understand and which provides good background reading related to Life Skills competencies. Various theories of Adulthood and their implications for the counsellor are described clearly and concisely, so as to enable readers to compare and contrast them (with current Life Skills theory).

Specific comments include:

- Dr. Peavy does not relate the skills and issues to group-learning formats and applications.
- re 4.1 — while this book does deal with problem-solving, the reader must integrate the approach to problem solving developed by NewStart with the approach to decision-making described by Dr. Peavy. The process of synthesizing these two approaches should result in a deepened understanding of problem-solving/decision-making.

3. *Client-Counsellor Relationships and Other Things That Go Bump*

This audio-visual tape presents eight competencies required by counsellors. These include the ability to use/show:

- empathic understanding
- respect
- facilitating genuineness
- facilitating self-disclosure
- personally relevant concreteness
- confrontation
- immediacy
- client self-exploration.

Vignettes demonstrating 3 levels of proficiency for each of these competencies are shown. Each of the 8 vignettes, used separately, would provide a good stimulus for training exercises for coaches. An advantage of audio-visual tapes over written materials is that they allow trainers to

observe specific skills performed at different levels of competence. The "tape", in a sense, brings the skills "to life" and makes them explicit so that their performance can be observed, measured and evaluated.

4. *"Groups That Work", Part I and Part II*

The committee's general impression was that these tapes are relevant to Life Skills and could be used for training sessions with either coach candidates or clients. Specific comments include:

- The group process enacted is "telescoped" and issues are dealt with quickly and superficially. Consequently, the tapes would be most beneficial when used as part of the "stimulus phase" of a lesson.
- The approach used by the facilitator, especially in the second tape, is more didactic in style than that used by an experienced Life Skills coach. Trainees viewing the tape should be made aware that the facilitator is not modelling an ideal coaching style. However, for training purposes, the tapes provide good samples of various facilitator styles.
- Part II contains some good examples of role-playing.
- The tapes contain numerous good examples of both helpful and harmful group behaviours.

5. *Individual Employment Counselling, A Systematic Approach*

- Chapter one contains a good capsule summary of various counselling theories.
- Since the main focus of this book is *individual* counselling related to *employment*, the content is only tangentially relevant to Life Skills training. The committee felt that the book should be used as a supplement to other, more directly relevant materials.
- Chapters five and nine contain material pertinent to decision making and evaluation respectively.

6. *"Intentional Listening"*

This audio-visual tape outlines 8 skills possessed by effective listeners. These skills, which are also contained in the Select Committee's list of coach competencies, include:

- eye contact and other non-verbal skills
- verbal following
- mirroring
- paraphrasing
- use of open and closed questions

- use of minimal encouragers
- summarizing

The committee felt that this tape was well-made and would be very useful during training sessions focusing on these eight skills.

Recommendations Resulting From the Analysis of the CEIC Materials

Many of the materials produced by CEIC are applicable to Life Skills training. However, the committee identified two problems associated with these materials. First, these books and tapes do not address all of the skills required by a Life Skills coach. Second, the skills which are dealt with are not contained in one comprehensive training "package". This situation was seen by the committee as especially problematic for novice Life Skills coach trainers.

The committee identified a number of additional projects related to the development of Life Skills coach training programs which should be undertaken. The Select Committee therefore recommends that:

1. A comprehensive Life Skills "text/manual" be developed. This reference source would include, among other things, a history of Life Skills, theoretical readings, Life Skills goals and definitions, the lists of coach competencies, examples of ways of applying Life Skills to various situations, evaluation guidelines and checklists, and supplementary readings.
2. A "standardized" coach training program be developed and piloted. Such a program would help to ensure that all individuals who participate in coach training courses and who then apply to the Board of Examiners for registration, would receive similar training (for example, approximately the same amount of emphasis would be placed on various skills and similar evaluation procedures would be used). The need for this type of uniform course was stressed repeatedly by all members.
3. A "manual" be developed to accompany the coach training course outlined in recommendation 2. This "manual" would contain lessons and exercises to be used by coach trainers to facilitate the acquisition of the skills and competencies required by a Life Skills coach.
4. A further review of existing materials be made in an effort to identify training materials relevant to the skills and competencies not addressed by the current CEIC materials.

Special mention was made of the relevance of Dana Mullen's book, *A Conceptual Framework For The Life Skills Program*, to the Theory and Knowledge Competencies described in 2.1 and 2.2.

Appendix I

Select Committee's General Lists of Life Skills Coach Competencies

1. Human Relations

1.1 Display basic communication skills:

a) Modulate behaviour in response to verbal and nonverbal cues
b) Display appropriate empathy, respect and genuineness
c) Be aware of your effect on others
d) Deal effectively with both constructive and destructive feedback
e) Display ability to express and share feelings including the capacity for self-disclosure

1.2 Display personal capacities:

a) Demonstrate positive self-concept
b) Distinguish own needs from those of others
c) Display fairness and lack of prejudice
d) Able to recognize own limits

1.3 Display capacity to help:

a) Assist clients to identify their present self-concept, and enhance their self-esteem
b) Detect lack of understanding
c) Help clients adjust to change
d) Effect closure of issues
e) Able to appropriately encourage independence and self-confidence
f) Able to identify interpersonal problems and facilitate their solution.

2. Theory and Knowledge

2.1 Knowledge of life skills:

a) Define and display life skills
b) Explain relevant theories, principles and methods
c) Explain specific lessons
d) Explain elements of group dynamics

2.2 Knowledge of role of coach:

a) Define and display role of coach including the ethics of coaching
b) Display use of performance-centered counselling
c) Demonstrate ability to identify and act on the changing needs of the group
d) Demonstrate ability to modify lessons to suit various target populations.

3. Lesson Presentation

3.1 Display capacity to function effectively with groups:

a) Able to deal effectively with the dynamics of the group
b) Able to plan activities with the group
c) Able to uphold acceptable standards of behaviour
d) Able to delegate responsibility

3.2 Display appropriate teaching skills:

a) Able to orient learners to the methods, roles and expectations
b) Able to communicate at learners' level
c) Able to motivate learners
d) Able to demonstrate skills to be taught
e) Able to adapt lessons and assist learners to adapt processes to learners' needs and abilities
f) Able to capitalize on student relevant problems to stimulate learning
g) Able to facilitate transfer of learning to everyday life
h) Able to use audio-visual aids
i) Able to contract behavioural change
j) Able to effect appropriate closure to lessons
k) Able to record, categorize and summarize data

3.3 Able to facilitate the acquisition of life-skills:

In the area of self, family, community, job and leisure

3.4 Display Personal Skills:

a) Able to recognize own limits and those of the students
b) Able to suit lesson to personal leadership style
c) Able to facilitate an appreciation of rights, ethics and values.

4. Problem Solving

4.1 Able to employ and teach the five-step problem solving system.

5. Evaluation Skills

5.1 Identification and evaluation of life skills goals:

a) Define goals and expected outcomes
b) Explain evaluation process
c) Evaluate individual lessons
d) Rate behaviours
e) Analyze progress
f) Terminate inappropriate trainees

5.2 Assist learners to self-evaluate:

a) Encourage learners to devise self-evaluation strategies
b) Assist learners to apply success criteria
c) Assist learners to identify helpful and harmful behaviours

5.3 Evaluate coach's performance:

a) Elicit learners' evaluations
b) Elicit supervisors' and peers' evaluations
c) Self-evaluate performance.

6. Lesson Preparation

6.1 Able to plan an overall program:

a) By applying the theories, principles and methodology of life-skills training
b) By appropriately sequencing skill training

6.2 Able to plan appropriate lessons:

a) By setting behavioural objectives
b) By selecting media and techniques appropriate to the lessons, the learners, and one's self
c) By responding to feedback.

Appendix II
Select Committee's Detailed Lists of Life Skills Coach Competencies

1. Human Relations Detailed List

1.1 Have and use basic communication skills such as: listening, speaking, questioning, attending, responding, gesturing, etc.
1.2 Able to interpret and respond to verbal and nonverbal cues
1.3 Have, use and model helping skills of empathy, respect and genuineness
1.4 Demonstrate awareness of effect of your behaviour on others
1.5 Able to give, receive and act in response to constructive feedback
1.6 Able to deal appropriately with destructive feedback
1.7 Able to express and share feelings
1.8 Able to "disclose" yourself
1.9 Demonstrate a positive self-concept
1.10 Able to distinguish own needs from others' needs
1.11 Able to "fight fairly"
1.12 Able to recognize own limits (e.g. biases, lack of familiarity, etc.) in working with different populations
1.13 Assist learners to identify their self-concept and facilitate its enhancement
1.14 Able to detect lack of understanding
1.15 Able to help learners to adjust to change
1.16 Able to effect closure of issues
1.17 Able to encourage independence and self-confidence
1.18 Able to identify interpersonal problems
1.19 Able to facilitate the solution of interpersonal problems
1.20 Demonstrate a regard for learners as individuals

2. Theory and Knowledge Detailed List

2.1 Able to give comprehensive description of "Life Skills'
2.2 Able to define "coach"
2.3 Identify and explain theories, principles and methodology of Life Skills training
2.4 Able to explain the Life Skills lessons
2.5 Able to explain the elements of group dynamics
2.6 Understand and play the role of coach in the learning transaction

2.7 Able to explain and practise the ethics of coaching
2.8 Able to use performance-centred counselling
2.9 Able to explain and act on the needs of groups at different stages of group development
2.10 Able to use knowledge of various target populations to modify lessons. For example when working with the psychologically, emotionally or physically disadvantaged, or particular ethnic groups, or prisoners, etc.

3. Lesson Presentation Detailed List

3.1 Able to deal effectively with the dynamics of the group by: the use of various strategies to increase trust; dealing with actual or potential conflicts; modifying behaviours not conducive to learning; facilitating the awareness of and changing harmful behaviours; rectifying communication problems; evaluating the interpersonal climate of the group; facilitating the implementation of decisions; and encouraging within-group mutual assistance
3.2 Able to plan activities with students
3.3 Able to uphold acceptable standards of behaviour by encouraging self-discipline and group-maintained discipline, and exercising discipline towards one's self and the group
3.4 Able to delegate responsibility
3.5 Able to orient learners to the learning method, roles and expectations
3.6 Able to communicate at learners' level
3.7 Able to stimulate and sustain interest and motivation, and utilize this
3.8 Able to demonstrate skills to be taught
3.9 Able to adapt process and content of lessons to needs and abilities of learners
3.10 Able to assist learners to modify skill development approach to their own needs by teaching learners to adapt processes, etc., in order to become self-directed
3.11 Able to capitalize on student relevant problems to stimulate learning
3.12 Able to assist learners in transferring skills acquired in the group to life situations by both creating situations that approximate real-life, and by encouraging students to practise new skills in their day-to-day life
3.13 Able to use the audio-visual aids
3.14 Able to contract behavioural change
3.15 Able to effect appropriate "closure" to lesson by summing-up, evaluating lesson, putting learners at ease, and by avoiding leaving issues unresolved
3.16 Able to record, categorize and summarize data
3.17 Able to facilitate the acquisition of life-skills in the following five areas —

Self	-	assist learners to plan use of time assist learners to identify and select realistic goals help learners develop self-understanding help learners develop confidence in planning own development
Family	-	facilitate the acquisition of conflict resolution skills assist learners to acquire budgeting skills
Community	-	help learners acquire knowledge of community facilities, services and agencies assist learners to effectively use community facilities, services and agencies
Job	-	assist learners to prepare a resumé provide learners with job search skills provide learners with job interview skills
Leisure	-	provide opportunities to develop effective use of leisure time

3.18 Able to recognize the limits of one's professional abilities, and act accordingly, e.g., refer learners to appropriate resources

3.19 Able to recognize student limitations, and anticipate and control hazardous situations e.g. emotional explosions, etc.

3.20 Present lesson so as to take advantage of own particular leadership style

3.21 Model and teach rights, ethics, and values

4. Problem Solving Detailed List

4.1 Able to employ the five-step problem-solving system i.e. (1) Describe the problem; (2) Define the problem; (3) Choose alternatives; (4) Apply solutions by the use of analytical and behavioural skills; and (5) Evaluate outcome.

4.2 Able to help learners employ the five-step system

4.3 Able to facilitate individual and group problem-solving of shared or individual problems

5. Evaluation Skills Detailed List

5.1 Able to explain the goals and expected outcomes for course

5.2 Able to explain the evaluation process and criteria for the attainment of the behaviours to be learned

5.3 Able to evaluate individual lessons in terms of overall program

5.4 Able to rate directly observable behaviours

5.5 Able to evaluate and discuss progress in terms of behaviour change

5.6 Able to analyze individual and group progress to isolate helpful and harmful patterns
5.7 Able to recognize and terminate inappropriate trainees
5.8 Able to encourage and assist learners in devising self-evaluation strategies
5.9 Able to help learner apply success criteria to determine progress, to identify obstacles and alternatives
5.10 Able to assist learners in identifying helpful and harmful patterns
5.11 Able to elicit learner evaluation of coaching/learning
5.12 Able to elicit supervision and peer evaluation of coaching
5.13 Able to evaluate own performance as coach

6. Lesson Preparation Detailed List

6.1 Able to apply the theories, principles and methodology of Life Skills training
6.2 Able to sequence skill training
6.3 Able to set objectives and goals
6.4 Able to reduce skills to basic behavioural objectives
6.5 Able to select the most appropriate medium to present a concept
6.6 Able to select techniques appropriate to lesson objectives
6.7 Able to select and design projects appropriate to individual and group needs and abilities
6.8 Able to organize lessons taking into account your role, the materials, etc.
6.9 Able to use evaluation data and feedback to assist planning.

1. The analysis described herein was conducted by members of the Select Committee of the Association of Life Skills Coaches of Ontario. The project was initiated and sponsored by the Occupational and Career Analysis and Development Branch of the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission in May of 1982.

An Evaluation System of Employment Counselling

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Introduction

In the spring of 1980, the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC) established a policy on employment counselling. The policy paper which was published at that time, defined, among other things, the various types of interviews that come under the category of employment counselling, and established the link between employment counselling services and the other services and programs of the Commission. Also included were five measures considered essential to successful implementation of this policy, the last of which deals with the evaluation of employment counselling services. The paper states in this regard that "initial efforts will be directed at implementing methods to accurately measure the outcomes of employment counselling. Analysis of this data will permit examination of the types of outcomes achieved with specific types of clients as a result of specific types of interventions." In other words, outcomes of employment counselling will be measured within a system that takes into account client characteristics and the type of intervention used.

Background

Those authors who have discussed employment counselling evaluation did not approach the problem from this perspective. They were above all concerned with the effect of certain types of intervention and, in most cases, used only the rate of placement as dependent variable — Brenna (1974), Philbrick (1975) and Stevens (1973). For the most part, these were essentially isolated efforts designed to verify the relevance of a limited number of hypotheses. The study carried out by Johnson et al (1980) for the US Department of Labor, however, differed from traditional approaches by proposing employment counselling evaluation within a system. Unfortunately, despite nearly five years of investigation and evaluation, the research team still appears far from its objective since its work is still involved in describing and defining the counselling process.

Moreover, other documentation relating to employment counselling in its broadest sense shows a more or less similar approach on the whole. Thus, the experimental approach is relied upon, here again, to verify a limited number of hypotheses. In general, the studies were conducted in a university context, and in most cases, client or user satisfaction was used to measure the impact of a particular type of intervention or program — Snodgrass (1979), Porter (1957), and Walker et al (1960).

There are nevertheless a few authors who preferred to approach the evaluation of counselling outcomes in terms of behavioural objectives rather than client attitudes. These various objectives include academic performance — Goodstein (1967), Ofman (1964), O'Leary (1969), Rickabaugh et al (1972), and Robie et al (1979); the placement of students and their job success — Libby (1977) and Meadows (1975); and such personal characteristics as career maturity, self-concept and adaptation — Berdie (1954), Dennis (1977), Freville (1977) and Thompson et al (1973). Others such as Hurst et al (1969), Johnson et al (1967), Parks and Harrison (1979) dealt more with the relationship between counselling outcomes and client or interviewer characteristics. Finally, there is a vast amount of documentation on the effect of the process itself and on the effect that certain types of training have on interviewer performance. Despite the wealth of studies, however, a unified approach is still lacking, as is, too, a method for fitting these elements into an integrated system that can be used as a basis for implementing an employment counselling evaluation program.

Development of a system

This scattered approach to employment counselling may explain the apparent contradictions found with a number of authors. Eysenck (1952, 1960, 1965) and Truax and Carkhuff (1967), for example, observed comparable changes in clients who were counselled and those who were not, even when the symptoms were identical. This lack of any appreciable difference was attributed to spontaneous recovery. Elsewhere, in a critical review of research studies done in counselling, Meltzoff and Kornreich (1970) noted that eighty percent of these studies reported positive results. Sperry (1972) explained this apparent contradiction by the absence of any system, making researchers consider only one aspect of the overall situation, fail to control certain essential variables or control different variables from one study to another, and thus gain only a partial and often distorted overview of the problem. He therefore proposed a new paradigm based on the continuum "input — process — outcome" to describe counselling situations. Accordingly, *input* would include:

1 client variables — demographic, aptitude, cognitive style, expectancy, achievement, personality style, motivation and so on;

2 counsellor variables — demographic, personality style, aptitude, cognitive style, expectancy, level of training and experience, etc.

3 contextual or situational variables — physical setting, referral source, psychological setting, sociological factors, etc.

Process variables would include:

1 the counselling intervention — type, phases of assistance, goals, methods of diagnosis, techniques, etc.

2 the interaction — dimensions, depth, revision of goals, etc.

Finally, the *outcome* would include changes in behaviour that occur outside the counselling situation itself, but nevertheless result from the counselling process.

In a recent article published in the *Review of Educational Research*, Glasman and Biniaminov (1981) carried out a similar exercise and tried to find constants in the various proposed and applied systems in education. They therefore proposed a dichotomous system using only the two extreme poles of the "input-output" continuum. They divided the first component (input) into two major categories: student and school. Under "student", they included: 1) the student's background (personal and family), 2) school-related student characteristics (sociodemographic characteristics, attendance characteristics . . .), 3) the student's attitudes (self-concept, locus of control and academic aspirations). Under "school", they included 1) the milieu (services, expenditures and management), 2) teaching personnel (background, personal characteristics, assignments and attitudes). The output component included 1) cognitive aspects measured by achievement tests and 2) non-cognitive aspects measured by attitude and personality tests, etc.

A similar approach has been used to structure educational program evaluation. Several strategies have been developed which Stake (1976) grouped into nine major themes. One of the many models based on this "input — process — outcome" continuum was developed by Stufflebeam (1971) who approached evaluation from a management perspective. He began by establishing an educational decision typology divided into four general areas, depending on whether these decisions reflect intentions (what should be) or actualities (what is), and whether they correspond to ends or to means:

— *planning* (or policy) decisions, which define orientations and establish objectives (intended ends or goals)
— *structuring* decisions, which determine procedures to attain established objectives (intended means)
— *implementing* decisions, which are involved in carrying through the action plan (actual means or procedures in use)

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— *recycling* decisions, in which attainments are reviewed and appropriate measures taken (actual ends or attainments)

Stufflebeam then defined a type of evaluation for each decision type, as shown in the following table:

TABLE 1

Relation between types of evaluation and decision types

decisions	*evaluations*
planning	context
structuring	input
implementing	process
recycling	product

We can define each evaluation made in this way:

The purpose of context evaluation is to provide the manager with information needed to establish objectives. Specifically, it provides a rationale, defines the desired and actual conditions of the environment, and identifies both the needs that must be met and the problems that must be solved.

Input evaluation helps the manager in determining the best procedures to meet program objectives. It provides information on how to utilize available resources, the cost and expected benefits of resource strategies and the feasibility of implementing these strategies.

Process evaluation is necessary to provide the manager with feedback throughout the course of a program. It is intended to provide information which can be used to overcome procedural difficulties, or better yet, prevent them.

Product evaluation enables the manager to determine whether or not established objectives have been met. The information provided is normally based on a comparison of actual and expected results and an interpretation of discrepancies using the context, input and process information already gathered.

All these various approaches have in common the "input-process-outcome" continuum. It appears possible to use such a model (found both in counselling and in educational program evaluation) to formulate an evaluation system of employment counselling.

A system for evaluating employment counselling services

Input

In describing the input required for employment counselling services, we have simplified things somewhat by combining the first two types of evaluation defined by Stufflebeam, namely, context and input. Both are used for making decisions having to do with intentions: context evaluation for establishing objectives (planning decisions) and input evaluation for determining the means to attain these objectives (structuring decisions).

As shown in Table 2, input is divided into three main categories: client, organization and environment. The client category includes both biographical characteristics, used to a large extent because of their lower subjectivity and psychological traits, values and personal resources such as contacts, finances, material, time, etc. It should be remembered that CEC clients constitute only part of the unemployed population: 1) not all persons seeking employment are in need of counselling services and 2) not all of those who are in need avail themselves of these services.

The organization category is broken down into five distinct resource areas. All counselling organizations have human resources to manage and deliver their services (administrators and interviewers respectively), and like their clientele, this personnel have their own characteristics as well. Second, these organizations also have financial resources, which here represent simply the value in dollars of the various budget allocations earmarked for services (accountable costs) as well as the underlying economic input (social costs); examples of this category are government subsidies, loss of earnings of the unemployed and the reduction of employer profits.

The third resource area is the organization's array of programs and services. The CEIC, for example, operates training and mobility programs and offers a variety of services in testing, placement, occupational information, etc.

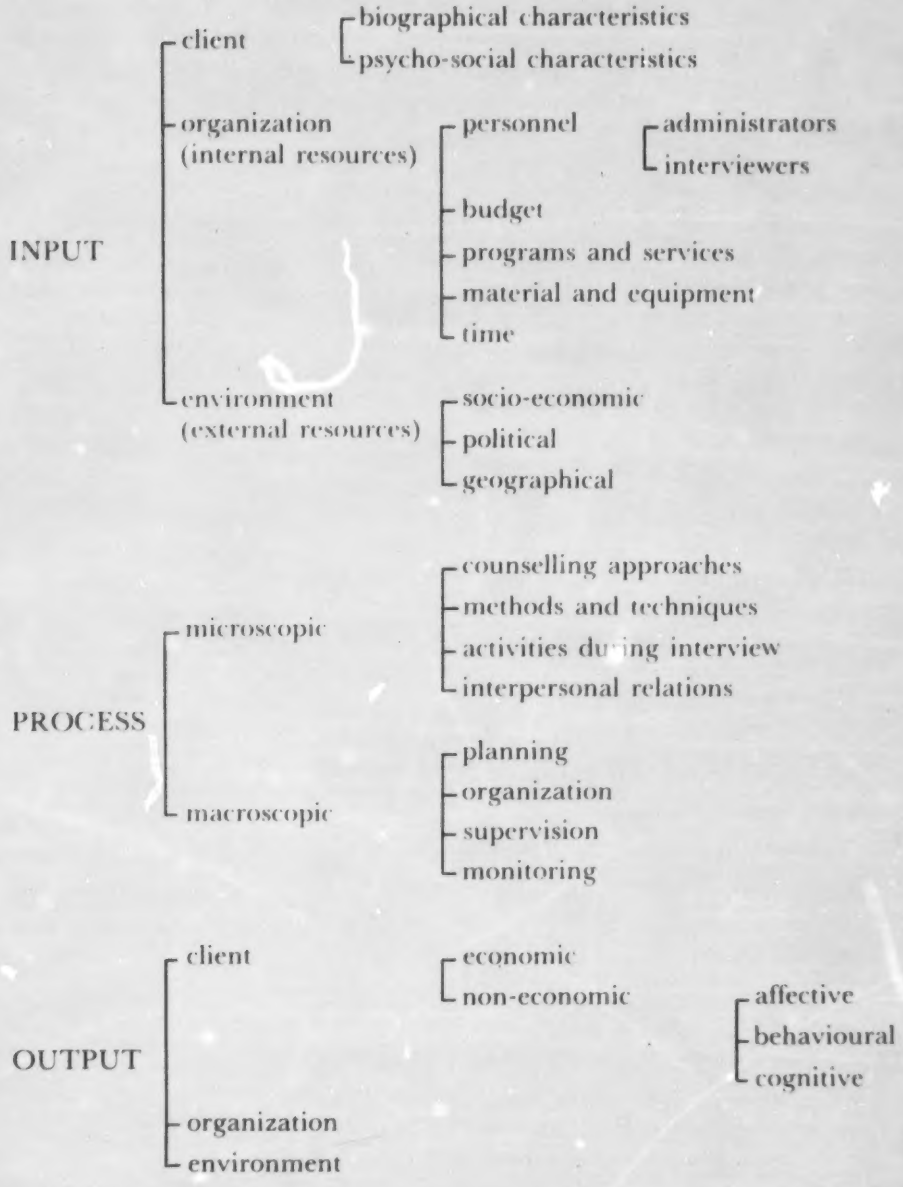
The fourth includes all the material and equipment needed to provide these services, such as office space, furniture, various equipment, documentation and forms.

The final resource area is time, an essential element to any organization providing services (time for planning, organizing, delivering, controlling, verifying, etc.)

The agency or organization could also rely on outside resources, whose availability and usefulness can vary a great deal. The prevailing geographic, social, economic and political conditions at a given time and in a given place can significantly affect other input elements.

TABLE 2

A Model for Evaluating Employment Counselling



Process

In addition to describing counselling services in terms of available resources, we must also consider the ways in which these resources are utilized. The operation of going from input to outcome is known as a process, and can be analysed from a microscopic or a macroscopic view, depending on whether emphasis is to be placed on the implementation or on the management of services. Microscopic analysis means describing what actually takes place between a client and interviewer: approaches, methods and techniques used, sequence of activities, procedures followed, topics discussed, nature of relationship, etc. Macroscopic analysis, on the other hand, focuses on how services are planned, organized, supervised and monitored at the various organization levels.

This differs from Stufflebeam's concept in which only those operations specifically aimed at carrying through an action plan are monitored. In other words, Stufflebeam's process evaluation is limited to a comparison of attainments and intentions in terms of means, though the concept does follow the approach proposed by Sperry and includes a macroscopic dimension.

Output

Output, like input, is divided into three main categories as well: client, organization and environment. Using as a basis the approach developed by Glasman and Biniaminov, who grouped the effects produced in students into cognitive and non-cognitive categories, we shall consider here the output of employment counselling services in economic and non-economic terms. By economic output we mean any change in a client's situation or status in the labour market resulting from his obtaining or keeping a job (salary or wages, job stability, mobility, promotion, etc.). Non-economic output relates to attitudes, knowledge and behaviour. For example, one can study the perceptions or attitudes of clients vis-à-vis their occupation, the labour market and the placement agency (affective measure), determine what clients actually do to choose an occupation or seek employment (behavioural measure), or measure what they know about choosing a profession or about job searching in general (cognitive measure).

Output can also be viewed on an organizational level, that is, in terms of the consequences for the organization or agency itself. What are the impact of this service on the personnel? on the other programs and services? Or what are their consequences on the budget, on priorities, or on the actual physical environment of an office?

Finally, output can be studied in relation to the outside environment or setting. How does providing a given service to a given segment of the population affect the local community, employers, or other placement agencies and related organizations? And what about its political, economic or social impact?

Implementing an evaluation system at the CEIC

Developing a system is one thing, implementing it is another. The three components just described do exist and reflect what is now going on at the CEIC. Since 1979, the Employment Counselling Division has been developing instruments for such a system. As far as input is concerned, a series of inventories has been prepared to provide demographic information on clientele, interviewers and administrators. In fact, most of the input data are already available within the CEIC in one form or another. Uniformity is lacking, however, in the quantity, organization and relevance of the data available. This is why efforts are now being made to develop a methodology and measurement devices that could provide standard and congruent information yielding to comparison and fitting system goals.

The process, however, can differ from one region to another, from one CEC to another or from one interviewer to another, and can vary depending on the specific problem in question. Any attempt to make this a uniform entity to better measure its components appears unrealistic. Glasman and Biniaminov avoided even mentioning the notion of process in a school context, limiting their system to only input and output. Despite this, it may be possible to identify certain common attributes among the different forms of intervention and unify them within an overall context to increase the feasability of their analysis. This approach, however, proves to be very time-consuming and highly questionable, and it may take some time before any consensus can be reached.

Whatever the exact nature of the process used, its major aim is to help the client resolve his employment problems. In this context, the objectives remain within the same framework and the results can be assessed with the same set of criteria. This is why the Employment Counselling Division has stressed, from the beginning, the importance of devising instruments that can accurately measure changes in attitude, knowledge and behaviour. The system is currently in the operational stage, implementation having begun in the spring of 1982 using an approach similar to the one recommended by Glasman and Biniaminov.

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The Time of Our Lives: Factors in Career Counselling[1]

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In any one day, each of us has twenty-four hours in order to accomplish all that we must do or want to do. For some people, this is more than enough time: others, research has shown, cram so much into their days that the total time spent in concurrent activities often adds up to thirty or forty hours. This paper summarizes some recent Canadian research on how people use their time and should provide a caution note to counsellors so that they may be aware of the importance of the time factor in the decisions which clients will make about their careers.

In recent years, the study of time has taken on increasing importance because it gives an accurate reading of what individuals do within the framework of their lives. Time imposes serious constraints on the options which are perceived as feasible. One of the strongest examples we have discovered is that working mothers with young children are most likely to be at home by 5:00 p.m. — unlike any other group of workers and, therefore, in selecting a job, a prime criteria is that the workplace be close to the home. In fact, in choosing a home, the proximity of the residence to the wife's place of employment has become a major factor in the decision. Time has a rippling effect on almost all other areas of life.

The constraints caused by fixed amounts of time are very real and yet, rarely, do people admit them to a counsellor. Surprising to us, many people do not care if a job provides self-fulfillment, uses their talents or suits their temperaments because they do not feel that these factors can take priority. The bus schedule may well decide which job is the better one to take.

The idea of looking at clients in terms of their physical or psychological needs is not new. In the last ten years in particular, giant strides have been taken in developing programmes and strategies to meet these needs. We have heightened our awareness of how counsellors can help the disadvantaged enter the mainstream of the labour force. But in our close examination, we may have missed one very important fact: no individual is simply a collection of needs. Rather, the individual is part of his or her environment and must act

within the limits of space and time imposed by that environment. It is often difficult to counsel clients at the point where they may be. To do so implicitly acknowledges all the inequities which exist in the world. We think that perhaps working within these constraints will legitimize these inequalities and that we do not want to do.

One of our problems in counselling has been to get an accurate reading of what people do both by necessity and by choice. Rarely is this kind of examination done on ordinary people. Because of this, we sponsored a study in 1981 which examined how a wide range of Canadians use their time. The data for this paper highlights some of our findings.

Studying the use of time is basically a twentieth century topic and probably reflects the increasing importance that discrete portions of time have taken in our lives. We are guided now by the movements of the clock rather than the movements of the seasons. In the Canadian Time Use Study[2] a time budget approach was used and it provides a systematic recording of a person's use of time over a given 24 hour period. Time budgets are collected by means of diaries in which one records sequentially all activities engaged in during the reporting period along with the start and end times of each activity. This approach has a number of advantages for measuring people's behaviour through time. It can be used to examine events or episodes with respect to when, where, with whom and for how long they take place. It reveals the scheduling of events. Because they provide an exhaustive accounting of the time period for which they are kept, they force the diary keeper to be relatively precise.

One of the things that time use studies do is help us to appreciate that people assume new roles, either in addition to or by replacing roles they already occupy, as they move through the life cycle. Working with the concept of role ensures that one provides an integrating perspective which incorporates the most significant aspects of people's lives by placing people in their contexts or frameworks of their lives.

Time is one of the most significant constraints on behaviour. Cullen and Phelps[3] have observed that more planned activities tend to be tied to times rather than places. And once tied to times, they structure the behaviour patterns of those who have made the commitment to a far greater extent than do episodes tied to places.

Social contacts are another important dimension of the event profile. The presence of a spouse or children of a certain age or of other adult kin, or of friends will affect the non-work patterns significantly.[4] The presence of family members alters the nature of discretionary activities engaged in. Thus, for example, the presence of family at home in the evening increases television viewing and reduces reading.

In the Canadian study, there were about 2700 subjects with about an equal split between men and women. All were aged 15 or older with about two-thirds being between 15 and 44. About 60% were married. In terms of their demographic characteristics, they were typical of all Canadians, and probably similar to the people of most western, industrialized countries.

Table 1 indicates how Canadians use their time on any given day. The figures are based on a total time per week which has been averaged over seven days to arrive at daily figures. For the general population, almost one-half of our time (47%) is spent on personal care including sleeping. We spend almost one-quarter of our time on leisure activities. The third largest expenditure of time (about 14%) is on paid work. Close behind it is the 12% we spend on home and family care. Only a small amount of time (2%) is spent on study-related activities and minimal (1%) on community volunteer work.

TABLE 1: Average Use of Time per Day over a Seven Day Week

ACTIVITY	SEX				TOTAL	
	MEN		WOMEN			
	Minutes	%	Minutes	%	Minutes	%
Personal Care (includes sleeping)	658.6	45.7	678.6	48.1	669.4	46.4
Leisure Activities	348.5	24.2	335.9	23.3	341.7	23.7
Paid Work	267.5	18.6	148.4	10.3	203.3	14.1
Home and Family Care	119.1	8.3	230.0	16.0	179.1	12.4
Study-related Activities	34.4	2.4	33.7	2.3	34.4	2.4
Community Service	11.1	.8	13.5	.9	12.4	.9

There are certain differences between the work day and the non-work day which is traditionally the weekend. Men are more likely to take part in a study activity or participate in an organized activity than are women and in their leisure time are more apt to be involved in an active leisure activity outside the home. Even so, their participation in home and family care increases by 70% as compared to a normal work day. Women, on the other hand, tend to do far more work on the weekend. Their total work, including paid work, home and family care and study, increases by 200% over the normal week day. If they have any leisure time, it tends to be spent in passive activities

such as reading or watching television. They may simply lack the energy to do much else.

As might be expected, there are a number of other significant differences between the use of time patterns of men and women. First, based on a seven day week, fewer women engage in paid work on an average day and fewer men than women engage in home and family care. Second, even those who do take part in the various activities spend different amounts of time on them on an average day. Men, if they work, do so for about eight hours a day while women put in slightly under seven hours in paid work. However, women use about 4 hours a day for home and family care while men average about 2 hours per day.

Another important difference between men and women is that men tend to work a five day week while women work 4.5 days. These figures result from the fact that women, especially those with young children, are more likely to work part-time.

Thirdly, men and women structure part-time work quite differently. For men, part-time employment means working the average number of hours a day which a full-time worker would do but working fewer days per week. Women, however, tend to work the same number of days as full-time workers but fewer hours per day. This suggests that part-time work might be more constraining for women than for men, especially as they have to put in additional fixed time each day simply for travelling to and from work. Work-time significantly affects the structure of the average day and women part-time workers have to cope with the intrusion of paid work nearly one day more per week than men. This intrusion then also expands into personal care time required to prepare for work.

Women, as a whole, account for 69% of total time spent on home and family activities while males accounted for less than one-third of this type of activity. It is obvious that in Canada the traditional allocation of responsibility is still very strong.

Another major area of importance in a country which has a shortage of skilled workers is the amount of study and training which is going on. A count of those in school is fairly straightforward. What is more difficult to identify is how many adults are improving their education on a part-time basis either through personal study or through continuing education programmes.

We found that full-time students accounted for just over 70% of all study activity. However, what is important in the counselling situation is that nearly one-quarter of all study time is accounted for by employed persons. Part-time workers are more than twice as likely to engage in study than are full-time workers, and when they do, they devote nearly twice as much time to the activity.

We were surprised to find that 36% of the women and 37% of the men in the sample had taken courses or been involved in some kind of learning project in the previous 12 months. These were people who were not full-time students. The reasons for taking courses differed by sex with nearly 58% of men taking courses for career-related reasons while only 44% of the women did so. Equally statistically significant was the fact that employers are much more likely to sponsor their male employees on courses than to sponsor their women employees. Another important difference was that 70% of the men had their costs paid for by their employer as compared to 49% of the women. The only unbiased sponsor was the government who sent an equal number of men and women on course to upgrade their qualifications.

Participation in continuing education declines with age. Other than young, full-time students, the age group which is most likely to take continuing education are those people between the ages of 30 to 44. It would appear that when people begin to realize they will be working for a long time, they begin to make serious commitments to improving their skills. It may also be that the tremendous demands made by young children have begun to ease by this point in most people's lives so that they now have more time for their own use.

We have also discovered that people are most apt to take part-time training when they are either single, or if married, where both spouses work. When one partner does not work, the non-paid work time is more likely to be spent at home, usually in passive activities such as television watching.

There were also significant differences in how the unemployed spent their time in comparison to the employed. Unemployed women tend to have a great deal of leisure time. However, unemployed males led the way in most leisure time and least participation in any kind of work activity including paid work, home and family care and study. Most of what they do could be classified under personal care or leisure. Very little time is devoted to looking for work: on average, about three hours a week is used this way. But they do not shift their energies to increased home and family care nor to study. In particular, age is highly correlated with ability to shift to other kinds of non-paid activity. While men younger than 35 spent almost as much time as unemployed women on total work such as home and family care, this was definitely not true of men over 35. These older men recorded only about 3 hours a day on any kind of work — paid or otherwise. Even working women spent more time than this each day simply on home and family care. This group would require special kinds of counselling or job search training.

A second phase of this research was a follow-up study on a group of people who had completed time diaries ten years before in 1971. Our findings show that work for pay is up about an hour a week for employed women since 1971 and down 7 hours a week for employed men. Free time has increased sub-

stantially for women, especially unemployed women, while decreasing for men by 3.5 hours a week. Although employed women gained more than 6 hours of free time over the past decade, they still have about 13 hours per week less free time than employed men.

A surprising finding was that nominally unemployed females spent, on average, four hours a week in paid employment.

In the last ten years, it is evident that males are spending more time on home and family care than they once did while women are spending more time in paid employment. For all groups, sleep and personal care and free time have increased, while paid working time and family care time have declined. These changes are most noticeable for women. Average hours of work time have declined overall while the male-female differential in total number of working hours is becoming less.

Now, what does all this mean for counsellors?

It is obvious that women, especially if they have small children, have many compulsory constraints on what they do each day and that these constraints will impact on their career-related decisions. Over a lifetime of work, women show a pattern very different from men. Men, once they begin to work, tend to maintain the same kind of overall pattern of time use until retirement. Women, on the other hand, will usually begin as full-time workers. and then with the birth of children will restrict their paid work either by reducing the number of hours per day or the number of days per week. Once the children are more independent, they resume their full-time work until their retirement so that their total work time is almost equivalent to that of men.

Further, we know that unemployed men, especially older ones, will find it difficult to adapt their life patterns to do other kinds of work activity.

These patterns of involvement have often been ignored both by counsellors and by educators. Too often only the most obvious barriers to employment are identified by counsellors: physical or mental handicaps, alcoholism, lack of skills. And it is true that all of these are barriers to employment. But the constraints of time are far more insidious. It is also evident that as lives change and as the demands of certain roles increase and decrease, that people will adjust their allocations of time.

Counsellors must begin to help their clients develop career paths which acknowledge evolving constraints such as child care, home care, travelling to work or needs for further education as one ages. And they must work with people who have these kinds of special needs to develop acceptable solutions to the problems by time constraints.

[1]Paper presented at the Conference on Counselling for Rehabilitation, Sigtunna, Sweden, May 25, 1982

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Adult Career Counselling and Guidance: A Position Paper

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Introduction

A. Policy and Programs

The Canada Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC) administers an active employment policy to help Canadians prepare for the job market and adjust to changes once in it. The programs and services offered to implement the policy include placement in employment, training for employment, job-creation, employment counselling and balancing immigration with the needs of Canadian employers for new workers.

The Canada Employment Centre (CEC) is the focal point for the identification and resolution of local employment problems. At the CEC, job referrals are made and placement facilitated; employment counselling, testing, employer services, selection for occupational training and job-creation takes place in co-operation with the local community (Conger, 1979).

B. Clients of Canada Employment Centres

Individuals come to the CEC for various reasons. Clients include immigrants to Canada; students, both at high school and post-secondary levels; unemployed people, both youth and adults; employed individuals who wish to change jobs; participants in sponsored employment-training programs; clients with rehabilitative or other special needs; and persons re-entering the labour force.

Among these clients, one primary concern of the Commission is the preparation of labour-market entrants for effective participation in the labour force. Each year approximately 480,000 young people leave school in search of employment. A number have problems adjusting from school to work and this often results in difficulties such as job classification or sporadic employment (Conger, 1979).

C. Counselling Assistance to Clients

The CEC counsellor assists clients to discover, develop and implement courses of action leading to employment or makes available to clients, those

CEC programs, training or services, that will best meet the needs which have been identified through the counselling process. The Occupational and Career Analysis and Development Branch of the Commission, has developed a variety of counselling methods and materials to facilitate these activities in CEC's, including: Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations, Canadian Occupational Interest Inventory, General Aptitude Test Battery, Index to Canadian Occupations, PLACE, CHOICES, Creating a Career, Careers Canada, Careers Provinces, College and University Programs in Canada and Creative Job Search Techniques.

D. Purposes of this Paper

The purposes of this position paper are to:

i) review the present status of career development counselling for adults;

ii) to develop a framework for further examination of career development services for adults;

iii) to propose recommendations and strategies for further development of comprehensive adult career development programs;

iv) to indicate significant issues and program needs for counselling adults.

A rationale will be developed for working with younger and older adults whether they be clients of Canada Employment Centres, educational institutions, agencies concerned with adult development or adults who are employed, whether they be classified as unskilled, skilled, blue-collar workers or white-collar executives. Intervention strategies will be discussed and future directions suggested.

E. Limitations of the Study

Adult development as it relates to employment is broad in scope and extremely complex. It is not the intention of this writer to provide a prescription for counsellors. Hopefully this study will expand and identify the broad area of adult development and will raise questions and issues where programs need further development rather than provide ready made answers. A further intention of the study is to suggest programs and practices that might be developed for our Canadian adults. Many of the programs and practices mentioned have been tried in a variety of settings across Canada but have not been documented. A lack of availability of Canadian publications describing possible practices has led the writer to use illustrations from the United States. It is neither the intention nor suggestion that American materials be used as they may not be appropriate for the Canadian culture. They are only mentioned as illustrations of the types of programs that should be examined but more clearly adapted for the needs of Canadian adults.

F. Implications

There is a paucity of research and theoretical information on counselling adults. The writer proposes that this paper will be valuable in contributing to planning programs and services for a variety of younger and older adults. It may also prove useful in providing rationale for the existing program interventions that have been developed by (OCAD) Occupational and Career Analysis and Development Branch.

A Framework for Adult Counselling

A. Introduction

In establishing a framework for career and guidance counsellors working with adults, one must examine the volume of career research as well as the socio-economic factors shaping our society. The scholars in guidance and related fields have studied the objective parameters of employment as they have sought further the understanding of the ways in which jobs, careers and the world of work are structured. Career Development leaders such as Super and Roe have provided classifications which have been used as a framework for assessing the psychological aspects of work, the career pattern processes and the satisfaction of individuals. The assumption is that counsellors of adults who understand the psychological stages and patterns established through research may have a sound rationale for dealing with a client based on his/her level of development. The writer feels that knowledge of career development is valuable and useful for assessing the predicting development where the conditions are stable. An equally important dimension of establishing a career development framework is to be aware of or study the impact of socio-economic factors which largely determine the opportunities and constraints that people encounter in both establishing and implementing their career plans.

One purpose of this paper is to identify and highlight research in adult development that is particularly useful to adult counsellors. The writer feels that previous research in vocational psychology and related implications are more relevant to individuals in the middle or upper class where socio-economic impacts do not seem to affect the career progressions as readily. The writer has classified these individuals as traditional clients and will describe them in another section of the paper.

However, there is an ever increasing number of non-traditional adult clients whose patterns and stages are not only difficult to predict but change almost from day to day as they are impacted by socio-economic factors. Among these adults are the unskilled and the minorities such as ex-offenders, natives, and

handicapped. At the present time, added to this group are automotive career executives, owners of small companies, and in some communities, teachers and lawyers. All have been affected and may need to be retrained or relocated because of socio-economic problems. Some causes of these problems are high rates of inflation, high interest rates, and high unemployment in the automotive related industry. These were traditional clients whose futures were quite predictable but they are increasingly becoming a part of the non-traditional type client. These clients who were vocationally mature find their careers suddenly interrupted and need assistance in this new transition as they move from one job arena to another.

B. Guidance and Counselling Programs for Adults: Some Definitions

1. Counselling and Guidance

Since words can be confusing as well as clarifying, the writer will seek to remove a few semantic stumbling blocks. Theoreticians and practitioners frequently use the terms guidance and counselling interchangeably, but at other times they make sharp distinction between the two.

Counselling is a specialized function. It is usually but not always part of a guidance program. At times, counselling is the only type of assistance offered in a guidance program. According to one leader in the field, "Counselling denotes a professional relationship between a trained counsellor and a client which is designed to help the client understand and clarify his view of his life space so that he may make meaningful and informed choices consonant with his essential nature and his particular circumstances in those areas where choices are available to him." (Ginzberg, 1971)

Guidance includes a wide range of functions which are directed toward helping individuals make optimum use of their alternatives in acquiring an education and in pursuing a career, such as providing information and assisting in its interpretation, testing and appraising individuals, counselling, placement and follow-up. Many people provide guidance: parents, teachers, peers, coaches, sergeants, supervisors, employment officials, and counsellors whose specific task is to provide guidance services. CEIC counsellors provide guidance services in the form of testing, placement, programs in CJST, PLACE, as well as counselling services. These combined services are directed at getting a client a job in the work place.

2. Career Guidance

Career guidance is a process of structured intervention aimed at helping individuals to take advantage of the educational, training, and occupational opportunities that are available. It should be noted that many adults have resolved their career decisions satisfactorily with little or no help from counsel-

ling or guidance personnel. However, in cases when adults required assistance planned systematic interventions can prove useful.

3. Educational and Vocational Counselling

Every person in our society is constrained to attend school for many years, to consider the type of work and life he/she would like to pursue, and to make choices and decisions informed by these preferences. Moreover, they must relate their development to the opportunities and options available to them. Educational and vocational guidance therefore represents a pivotal intervention. Work, and education and training for work, represent a critical arena of human activity. Hence guidance directed toward assisting individuals to choose among different types of work and to prepare for work is a critical intervention to help them clarify their developmental experiences and the world of reality (Ginzberg, 1971).

Although it is not believed that education should be solely or even primarily preparation for work, it is believed that all males and increasing numbers of females spend most of their adult lives at work, the relationship between education and work cannot be ignored. If it is, young people will be unable to understand the important linkages between the two. A young adult person who has not availed him/herself of educational opportunities often will have difficulty in earning a livelihood. While education and work must be distinguished, they are sequentially linked at the beginning of an individual's life and are increasingly intertwined in adulthood as our technological society puts a premium on continued learning. For this reason, adult counsellors in agencies and particularly the CEC's should maintain close linkages with the educational systems as well as each other if they are to provide effective career guidance and counselling programs. Therefore, the value of guidance programs and materials as developed by OCAD for learning institutions for use as preventative measures should not be underestimated.

However, central to the work of the adult career guidance counsellor are interventions related to the world of work. More specifically, assistance may be required in locating a job, moving to a better job, acquiring skills that can facilitate career guidance progression, finding a new career if forced to retire early, adjusting to an urban labour market after having grown up on a farm, or re-entering employment after a period spent at home raising children. All of these dimensions appear to be critical since they help to determine whether a person works, the wages one earns, one's opportunities for advancement, and the satisfactions one derives from working.

The key point should now be clear: the labour market is as important as the educational system. If adult career guidance services are to be broadened and strengthened, a better understanding of the operations of the labour market

is essential for both counsellors and counsellees. Unless those making decisions understand its operations, they are likely to make errors in assessing their opportunities and in deciding among alternatives. Socio-economic factors affecting the trends in the labour market will often cause job transitions and the adult will need assistance adapting to these changes.

C. Need for Adult Counselling and Guidance

An age period that until recently had been ignored by guidance personnel and practices is the long extended stage of adulthood occurring after a person begins to work. Implicitly and explicitly, guidance appears to say that when a person's education and training are behind him/her, there is little he/she can do but make the best of his/her investment. Nevertheless for many, the early years in the labour market represent a critical period of exploration. In addition, older persons could find their work unsatisfactory and feel compelled to make a shift. We are only slowly recognizing a role for guidance in providing support for young adults who are attempting to establish themselves at work and in assisting adults to make better use of options that remain open to them throughout their working years.

Job changes and career shifts occur at all ages, although job changes decline from the high of almost 25 per cent of the male work force between the ages of twenty and twenty-four to about half that level in the ages twenty-five through forty-four, and are further reduced by half in the pre-retirement years (Riley and Foner, 1968). On the average, a man at 40 can expect to make about two more job changes during his years of work (Riley and Foner). As Wolfbein comments, "The time is long past when an individual could prepare for some one job and then remain in it for the rest of his working lifetime." (Wolfbein, 1968)

An increasing number of middle-aged persons are changing not only jobs but also careers. Hiestand notes, "Middle-aged people increasingly have options which were not formerly available to middle-aged people as a group, and not available to them as individuals when they were young." (Hiestand) In some cases, increasing affluence has enabled some middle-aged men to leave the full time labour force for periods of time to acquire new skills through formal education and training. In addition, many individuals such as former military personnel, acquire valuable pension rights at a relatively young age and are then able to embark on a second career.

Many mature women seek new outlets after their child-rearing responsibilities have been completed. They often require help and encouragement in finding new activities. They need guidance in evaluating their training and experience and to direct them to jobs and/or education. Thousands of adults including executives, owners of small businesses and many professionals find them-

selves among a large pool of unemployed from the automotive industry or related industries seeking alternative career opportunities. Also, the rapid expansion of manpower training and related programs during the past decade, especially those focused on helping the hard-to-employ, has spotlighted a substantial requirement for counselling specialists capable of relating effectively to deprived populations.

In addition, other groups, such as adults searching for new jobs or careers, the disabled, ex-prisoners, women returning to work, workers approaching retirement age, have a great need for counselling services.

The future is clear. There is a growing number of adults in constant career transition who will need help adapting to their new job arena. Many of the transitions, i.e. job changes, will be internally controlled while others will be caused by external factors. An adult in transition by choice because of a promotion or job change, needs less assistance than an adult who is forced to change arenas because of external forces in the form of plant closures, lay off, demotion or even firing. Counsellors of adults must understand these social factors as they impact on an adult's vocational development.

In the next section of the paper the writer provides a theoretical perspective of vocational development as it relates to adults.

Theoretical Perspective: Vocational Development and the Adult

A. Overview

All humans are involved in career development. Although many definitions of the career development concept have been presented, it is generally recognized that career development is a process that occurs over one's life span. Pietrofesa and Splete (1975) have defined career development as "an ongoing process that occurs over the life span and includes home, school and community experiences related to an individual's self-concept and its implementation in life style as one lives life and makes a living."

Basic dimensions of career development, as part of total life development, are reported in the 1973 National Vocational Guidance Association/American Vocational Association joint position paper as follows:

1. Development occurs during the lifetime of an individual. It can be described in maturational terms denoting progression through life stages and the mastery of developmental tasks at each stage. Although research evidence is lacking, it seems unlikely that intervention can substantially shorten the maturational process.

2. Individual development is influenced by both heredity and environment. Psychological, sociological, educational, political, economic, and physical factors affect development. Appropriate intervention strategies which focus upon these factors can influence the quality of individual development.

3. Development is a continuous process. Individual development can best be facilitated by intervention strategies that begin in the early years and continue throughout the life of the person. Programs which focus only at certain points or at certain stages in the individual's life will have limited effectiveness.

4. Although development is continuous, certain aspects are dominant at various periods in the life span. Programs designed to facilitate career development should account for the dominant aspects at given stages.

5. Individual development involves a progressive differentiation and integration of the person's self and his perceived world. Intervention strategies need to be designed to assist individuals during normal maturational stages of career development rather than to provide remedial assistance to individuals whose development has been damaged or retarded.

6. While common developmental stages can be observed and described during childhood and adult life, individual differences in progressing through these stages can be expected. Intervention programs should provide for these differences, making no assumption that something is "wrong" with those who progress at atypical rates.

7. Excessive deprivation with respect to any single aspect of human development can retard optimal development in other areas. Optimal human development programs are comprehensive in nature, not limited to any single facet. It is recognized that those who suffer from deprivation may require special and intensive assistance. Where deprivation is long-term, short-term intervention is not likely to be sufficient.

Career development theory has been based upon the premise that individuals have a period of time in which to adequately explore, choose and prepare for occupational fields. However, in today's world, many persons do not have the luxury of an extended time period to prepare most thoroughly for a career or even an immediate job. This is especially true for adults, whether they are in the younger-aged adult category (ages 18–25), the middle-aged adult category (ages 25–40), or the older-aged adult category (ages 40–60).

The field of employment counselling is also faced with a variety of clients who need aid. No longer is there a traditional client. Now, there is a need to recognize that non-traditional adult clients include those previously labelled as minorities, disenfranchised, disadvantaged and culturally different.

In the remainder of this section, previous career development theories, present career development needs, and proposed career development strategies will be discussed. These areas will be reviewed particularly as they relate to the adult population.

B. Career Development Theories

The most popular theories of career development include the following:

a) Trait and factor theory

b) Ginzberg's developmental theory

c) Roe's needs theory

d) Super's developmental theory

e) Holland's personality theory

f) Tiedeman's cognitive developmental theory

g) Gelatt's decision-making theory

h) Psychoanalytical theory

i) Social factors theory

a) *Trait and factory theory.* This theory is based upon the premise that individuals have unique traits or abilities that can be measured objectively and then related to the requirements of various types of jobs. Due to its emphasis on objective measurement, trait and factor theory has been tied closely to the assessment or psychometrics movement.

It is assumed that when the individual is studied and assessed and occupations are studied and assessed, a match can be made between the individual and an occupation or job. At times, this approach has been used frequently by employment service counsellors.

Even though a match may be made objectively, persons will need to consider whether the particular job is available and also whether they might derive personal satisfaction from it.

b) *Ginzberg's developmental theory.* Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrod and Herma (1951) were a team of Columbia University researchers who formulated a theory of occupational choice from a developmental point of view.

This group indicated that there were three distinct stages in one's occupational choice process. They are:

1. Fantasy, which occurred in childhood, before age 11.
2. Tentative, which occurred in early adolescence, ages 11–17.
3. Realistic, which occurred in middle adolescence, ages 17 to young adult.

In the original study, Ginzberg et al indicated that the developmental process of career decision-making was irreversible. However, in 1972, Ginzberg revised his statement regarding irreversibility. He stated that changes could be made after certain periods, but maintained that early choices and experiences were most influential.

c) *Roe's needs theory.* Roe (1956) classified occupations into two major categories: person-oriented and non-person oriented. She theorized that career choices would be made to fulfill personal needs. These needs were developed through early childhood interaction, especially those with the parents and the home environment. Basically, she hypothesized that those drawn toward person-oriented occupations were reared by accepting and warm parents and those drawn toward service occupations were reared by rejecting and cold parents.

In 1972, Roe modified her theory to include additional factors, other than family environment, as influential in one's career choice. However, her focus on early parent-child relationships pinpointed one important factor in career development.

d) *Super's developmental theory.* Super (1957) formulated a developmental approach to career development which included five basic stages. They were:

1. Growth, birth–14, one develops attitudes, interests and needs.
2. Exploratory, 15–24, one tentatively narrows possible career choices.
3. Establishment, 25–44, one experiences trial and stabilization in career field.
4. Maintenance, 45–64, one continually adjusts to improve the working position and environment.
5. Decline, 65–on, one considers work efforts, accomplishments, possible retirement options and retirement.

Super also indicated that persons achieve various degrees of vocational maturity as they accomplish developmental tasks within an ongoing series of life stages. A central theme of this theory is that one's self-concept is implemented into a career which allows for self-expression.

By 1974, a portion of Super's work focused on vocational maturity in adolescents and measurement of this maturity through the Career Development Inventory. He posited six dimensions which he felt were relevant for adolescents:

1. Orientation to vocational choice
2. Information and planning

3. Consistency of vocational preferences
4. Crystallization of traits
5. Vocational independence
6. Wisdom of vocational preferences

Super has continued to expand and revise his theoretical concepts as they relate to women and mid-career persons. In the area of mid-career vocational maturity, Super (1977) emphasized:

1. Planfulness or time perspective
2. Exploration
3. Information
4. Decision-making
5. Reality orientation

He further developed and expanded this model in 1979, as it might relate to career adaptability in young adult blue-collar workers. These factors were:

1. Work value and work salience
2. Autonomy or sense of agency
3. Planfulness or future perspectives
4. Exploration and establishment
5. Information
6. Decision-making
7. Reflection on experience

e) *Holland's personality theory.* Holland (1973) postulated that career choice is an extension of one's personality to a work setting and one's identification with occupational stereotypes. He has formulated six personal styles — realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional.

An example of one style and related occupational environments would be as follows. An investigative person would be independent, intellectual, analytical and would work in scientific occupations as physicist or mathematician or technical occupations as computer programmer or laboratory technician.

This theory emphasizes the importance and accuracy of self-knowledge and career information in helping one make career decisions.

f) *Tiedeman's cognitive developmental theory.* This theory emphasizes one's evolving ego identity. Stages of one's career development parallel Erikson's (1950) eight psychosocial crises. A major goal in career development, as seen by

Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963), is in resolving the Erikson trust-mistrust crisis as it relates to the working world.

The two basic stages of Tiedeman's model are anticipation and implementation. There are four aspects of anticipation — exploration, crystallization, choice and clarification. There are three aspects of implementation — induction, reformation and integration.

Working through all of these aspects of career development is a complex process. Decision-making is an ongoing component of this process. Tiedeman believes that one can make decisions in a systematic problem-solving manner through use of one's cognitive abilities with recognition of one's uniqueness and the uniqueness of the working world.

g) *Gelatt's decision-making theory.* This theory is based upon the view that one has options or alternatives from which to choose. Gelatt (1962) proposes the concept of a series of decisions — immediate, intermediate and future — and indicates that decision-making is an ongoing process.

Gelatt's decision-making process follows these steps:

1. Need to make a decision recognized
2. An objective or purpose established
3. Data collected
4. Possible courses of action determined
5. Desirability of outcomes determined
6. Decision evaluated and made

The decision reached can either be investigatory, which indicates further research is needed, or terminal, which indicates a course of action will be taken.

Important factors to consider in this theoretical model include: one's readiness to be involved in the process; one's self-knowledge; one's knowledge of career possibilities, requirements and demands; and, one's understanding of the decision-making process.

h) *Psychoanalytical theory.* This theory considers occupational choice and subsequent employment as a means of satisfying impulses and providing outlets for sublimated wishes.

Bordin, Nachmann and Segal (1963) formulated a framework for vocational development, which included these points:

1. Infant's early psychological and physiological experiences are directly related to adult intellectual and physical activities.
2. One's basic needs are determined in the first six years of life.

3. One seeks an occupation which is based upon previously determined basic needs.
4. Work represents sublimation of infantile impulses into socially acceptable behaviours.
5. Careers can be described in clusters of dimensions which represent psychoanalytic needs.

To illustrate the last point, a person might choose social work to (a) satisfy nurturant needs of feeding (through providing supplies to meet material needs of clients) and, (b) satisfy exploratory needs of sight (through visual investigation of clients' homes).

i) *Social factors theory*. This theory proposes the notion that sociological factors, such as one's social group and social environment exert a most significant influence on one's career development and occupational choice. Central points of this theory are that circumstances beyond the control of the individual effect possible career choices that one might have, and that one is forced to develop techniques to cope with his/her environment.

In addition to physical environmental influences, Miller and Form (1964) indicate that "accident of birth" can be a deciding factor in the determination of one's occupation. This accident establishes one's family, race, nationality, social class, sex, residential district and to a great extent educational and cultural opportunity.

One example of a sociological factor would be that of parental or family career expectations for an individual. Often middle class families project middle or upper class types of occupations as desirable and attainable for their children while lower class families project lower class jobs as realistic for their children.

C. Summary

Very brief sketches of the most widely discussed theories of career development have been presented above. It is interesting to note that they focus on possible factors which influence a choice of occupational field or ongoing choices of jobs. Other than Super, the theorists have only in passing focused on stages in adult career development. It is important to note that career development theories have traditionally focused on white, middle-class male populations and the economic and job opportunities available to them. Thus, one needs to consider the relevance of these theories to women, non-middle class persons, natives, and other Canadian minorities.

Although career development is a continuous process, certain factors are dominant at various periods of the life span. Programs designed to facilitate

career development should account for the dominant aspects of that age and environmental situations which relate to an age group and to a particular population.

Career development theories can be helpful, as they focus on influences impacting one's career development and choices. However, theories do not always relate directly to clients in a counselling or placement setting, where some action needs to be taken at that moment. A counsellor should review these theories and determine which influences may be most significantly influencing the particular client or clients. Based upon this information and the situation at hand, the counsellor needs to be proactive in working both with the client's needs and the realities of the labour market.

As one looks at the adult in career development, it is appropriate to recognize that the adult does not have the same time to review career options, training, and exploration as an adolescent. It appears that adults could be best aided by counsellors who have reviewed career development theories and adapted practices which focused on the adult client's (1) awareness of self — skills, interests, (2) awareness of *realistic* job opportunities and training, (3) attitudes toward self and work, and (4) understanding and willingness to use a decision-making process. One's self-concept as a person capable of productive work and being able to obtain this work seems most crucial.

The socio-economic factors mentioned above are further described in the next section of this paper.

Social Factors: Determinants in Adult Career Development

A. Introduction

In this section, current economic and political situations will be reviewed as they impinge on career possibilities for adults. This can be illustrated by Brenner's work reported in a recent article (Ferman, 1979). He compared the depression of the 1930's with the current difficult labour market. In the 1930's there was a massive relocation of workers away from agriculture, in large part because the development of large-scale farming with attendant automation. Brenner predicted a similar chain of events would occur in manufacturing industries with the advent of automation and robotics and concluded that individuals would need to move to 'service oriented', 'thought oriented' and 'communication oriented' industries. Brenner did not anticipate the energy problems and did not predict how serious the matter really would become. Presently, our society is experiencing high levels of unemployment, particu-

larly in the manufacturing and automotive-related sectors. At the same time, inflation remains an ongoing concern. To say the least, our economy is not stable and shows signs of continuing concern.

The UAW New Year Announcement for 1982 was that their membership had dropped from 1.6 million to 1.2 million, a decline of 400,000. Statistics Canada reported that 987,000 were unemployed in December of 1981, a near record breaking statistic (Windsor Star, 1981). The article further reported that in the United States the unemployment rate for adult men reached a post war record high of 8% while black unemployment reached 17.4%.

The January 24, 1982, issue of the Detroit Free Press described the plight of both the white-collar and blue-collar workers. The article concludes that white-collar workers are being dislocated as much as the blue-collar workers. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reports unemployment for the white-collar civilian work force rose from four per cent in December, 1980, to 4.6 per cent in December, 1981, — from 2.12 million to 2.49 million people. The article reported that General Motors would lay off 13,000 employees, a full seven percent of its world-wide administrative force while both Ford and Chrysler started early retirement programs coupled with many layoffs. The issue suggested that college degrees were no guarantee of job placement and that 4,000 teachers and 1,300 state social workers were laid off in Michigan alone.

This same issue reported that Ferman, Research Director of the University of Michigan's Institute of Labour and Industrial Relations, indicated that the blue-collar and white-collar workers reacted differently to this socio-economic impact. The blue-collar worker usually blames him/herself for not having more training. The white-collar workers are more likely to blame the system and feel betrayed because they went to school to get the necessary training. Clearly, they have one thing in common. They are both affected by socio-economic factors and need assistance to adapt and adjust during this transition.

Super and Knasel (1981) indicate that as the labour economy in developed capitalist nations changes, workers or potential workers are confronted with a variety of novel and unpredictable tasks. In cities such as Windsor and Chatham, trained or skilled workers can relocate to the western or other sections of the country, but the unskilled continue to remain and to be unemployed.

In particular, women, young adults (ages 16–24) and minorities have found great difficulty in obtaining employment. There is a surplus of labour for the majority of available jobs. To compound the problem, when layoffs occur, those first dismissed are those most recently hired, which tend to include young adults, minorities and women.

Yet, these groups are not alone in coping with the current employment situation. Mid-management level executives, lawyers, teachers and human serv-

ices providers have all been recently influenced by the economy and, many are adapting to new careers.

More and more varied types of persons are confronted with career concerns, including layoffs, transfers and the prospect of no employment. These people range from the chronically unemployed to the business executive who is presented with the option of early retirement or termination of employment.

In the past, much attention has been given to the non-traditional adult, who was labelled minority, disenfranchised, disadvantaged and culturally different. Even though that population continues to exist and need aid, additional clients as laid off workers, under-employed workers, hopeful older-age workers and women trying to provide additional income for their families swell the ranks of those needing career counselling and placement.

B. Special Client Needs

The career development counsellor needs to recognize the various needs of his/her clientele. For example, disadvantaged persons often have a complex, interlocking set of inadequate behaviours. Some lack the skills needed to identify problems, to recognize and organize relevant information, to describe reasonable courses of action, and to foresee the consequences; they often fail to act on a rationally identified course of action, and submit to actions based upon emotion or authority. Often they do not benefit from their experience since they do not evaluate the results of their actions once taken, and display fatalistic rationalizations of the consequences. Many disadvantaged have low levels of participation in the society surrounding them and few belong to voluntary organizations. They lack effective ways of seeking help from each other and from agencies already in existence, although some form of public assistance provides much of their income. Long periods of unemployment, or frequent job changes, mark their work history. They have ineffective interpersonal relationships and lack basic communication skills. They lack the self-confidence to develop their abilities, and have low, or often surprisingly unrealistic aspiration levels.

It is quite evident that in order to provide effective counselling and education for the disadvantaged we must identify these adults and characterize the specific nature of their disadvantage. We need to know exactly how these adults differ from those with whom our traditional system has been successful; for even though the existence of academic deficiency among a high percentage of this population is well-documented, the specific character of the deficiency is not.

In addition, these people have some combination of one or more of the following problems:

1. Economic deprivation attributable to an absent non-producing, or marginally-producing, breadwinner.
2. Social alienation caused by racial or ethnic discrimination with all its accompanying deprivations in housing, employment, and education, or by membership in a different or non-English speaking subculture group.
3. Geographic isolation because of transiency or residence in an area far removed from adequate educational facilities.

In Canada in 1961, families in which the head had less than secondary education accounted for more than two-thirds of all low income families. Amongst the disadvantaged, educational level has been found to be consistently below that of the general population so that a major proportion of the disadvantaged are characterized by educational deficiency.

Among the disadvantaged, there is a disproportionate number classified as complete or functional illiterates and none who can satisfy the grade ten prerequisite for vocational training. Thus, a majority of the disadvantaged, because they have not obtained grade nine or better, are excluded from participation in those educational programs that offer a potential escape from poverty. Most surveys found that about half of the unemployed do not finish primary school and over ninety percent do not complete high school.

A recent article in the *Windsor Star* suggested that over twenty-five percent of adults in Essex and Kent Counties were illiterate. Students in some communities have sued their school systems because upon graduation and application for a job, they were found to be illiterate.

The disadvantaged generally suffer extended periods of unemployment. In Hamilton, Ontario, 160 employable families and 300 unemployable families had been without work for more than a year. Likewise, the employment history of 160 Minneapolis subjects showed that almost half the group (45 percent) had been out of work at least half the time during the preceding five years. A study of fifty-two "difficult-to-place" persons of a sheltered workshop in Montreal revealed that only two subjects had worked more than one hundred days out of a potential of 260 working days.

In a current survey of the unemployed and under-employed auto workers in Windsor, over eighty percent of the workers interviewed indicated upgrading in basic education as a requirement to further employment. In addition, the recent Allmand Report indicated that 28.3% of Canadians are functionally illiterate and this illiteracy diminishes their prospects for employment.

There are differences in achievement motivation among groups of different socio-economic status. Kolb (1965) stated that training in achievement motivation was less effective for lower socio-economic class males than for their

upper socio-economic counterparts. Upper economic individuals do value education more. It could well be that potential under-achievers from higher socio-economic groups are under pressure to achieve and do so eventually, while potential under-achievers from lower socio-economic groups are not under such strong pressure and do not feel so out of place.

In discussing the relationship between level of aspiration and self-concept, Wylie (1961) has concluded that self-overestimation is probably as common as self-underestimation. The effect on behaviour, as McClelland (1953) has indicated, varies because setting goals and carrying through is markedly opposed to setting goals and not carrying them through. This phenomena is characteristic of disadvantaged young adults. They might often verbalize a desired goal but they will not take the intermediate steps necessary to achieve the desired goal because of a real lack of faith or belief that they can achieve (Leonard, 1968). Henderson (1966) describes this as the difference between real and ideal aspirations, with the ideal being what a person would like to achieve, and the real, what the person believes he/she will in fact achieve.

Disadvantaged adults often hold lower levels of occupational aspirations and this in turn narrows their possible career choices. Occupational aspiration is seen as reflective of self-concept or self-esteem. One's low self-concept hinders one's ability to set goals and to carry them through, and this phenomena is characteristic of special clients.

Non traditional clients, other than those considered disadvantaged, may experience some of the same concerns but certainly not to the same extent. Loss of job or transfer to a lower-level job may be a cause of shock and lower self-esteem for many.

Regardless of the background and needs of this diverse adult clientele, the career development counsellor can work with them to aid them in maintaining their dignity and facing the current world and its employment possibilities.

C. Implications for the Adult Counsellors

It is clear that social and economic factors do have a significant impact on an adult's career. Further, there is evidence to illustrate that in most instances, the adult has limited control over the social and economic changes, but does have control over the way he/she adjusts or adapts to the circumstances.

Special clients or the highly disadvantaged or minorities are more vulnerable to social and economic crisis than the middle class. However, both are part of the non-traditional client population and require assistance in adapting. Critical to the counsellor, is to assess the seriousness of the adjustment. Understanding the client, diagnosing the needs, and deciding the appropriate intervention(s) are critical to counsellor success. The more serious the need,

the more intensity, energy, skill and depth of intervention(s) and time will be required to assist the adult in his/her adaptation from one arena in the employment world to the next career arena.

D. Summary

The barriers to employment for the non-traditional or disadvantaged clients are severe. The need for counselling and support programs are paramount. The nature of their disadvantage is such that they are generally not able to cope and adjust as a result of one interview but require a series of ongoing intensified programs designed at remedying their specific barrier or disadvantage. Problems that have been accumulated through one lifetime are not easily modified in one counselling interview.

The next section provides a further analysis of the traditional and non-traditional client. The classifications presented provide a further framework to enable the adult counsellor to assess and assist the adult.

Traditional and Non-Traditional Clients

Traditional clients are those adults who have successfully progressed through a series of careers and have established themselves in a career where they enjoy both success and satisfaction. On the other hand, the non-traditional client has not mastered a stage of his/her development or finds his/her stage of development interrupted by external forces that cause the person to flounder in his/her career until he/she can both cope with and master the new transition. In the past decade and in the years ahead there appear to be increasing numbers of adults who find themselves in new career transitions, often caused by external forces. These adults would be classified as non-traditional clients. A major difference is the consistency and predictability in which persons explore, become established and progress in their work and careers. Ginzberg has proposed a scheme, although somewhat artificial, which provides a necessary framework for the counsellor to recognize the differences between the traditional and non-traditional categories of clients. These categories are intended to be an analytical device only, as a means of encapsulating variabilities in career outcomes (Ginzberg, 1971).

A. An Overview of Categories

1. Traditional Categories

a) *Individualistic.* The individual is largely responsible for determining the conditions of his/her work. (He/she is controlling his/her destiny.)

b) *Organizational.* The individual holds a position in an organization which largely determines the work he/she does and rewards he/she earns. (His/her destiny is controlled by the organization which is predominantly stable, predictable, and supportive.)

2. Non-Traditional Categories

a) *Market.* The individual's employment is continuous but its terms are set by conditions of supply and demand in the labour market. (His/her destiny is controlled by the variations in supply and demand which are directly effected by socio-economic factors.)

b) *Peripheral.* One's conditions of work are set by the market but there is no continuity of employment. Because of personal desire or social rejection, the person is loosely attached to the labour force.

B. Illustrations of Categories

The following illustrations provide a further elaboration and definition of these four categories: Individualistic, Organizational, Market and Peripheral.

1. The Individualistic Group

The individualistic group, like the organizational group, contains several distinct components. They are self-employed professionals — physicians, lawyers, architects — as well as such professionals as research scholars who, though employed by a university, are able to determine the direction of their own work. This category also includes an assortment of independent businessmen including the cab owner, the small retailer, and those in a mixed status such as holders of franchises. The majority of farm owners also fall into this category.

This group also includes a number of persons with varying orders of talent and skill who build their work and career around their competences and who are able to direct their work by controlling their services. Examples are independent commercial artists, cabinet-makers, television actors and electricians. Despite differences in background, in type of work, and in the circumstances governing their relations to the market, their common characteristic is the fact that they are largely in control of their own work, subject to the extent of the demand for their services. As with all people who must earn money by selling their labour or the product of their labour, they are not able to operate solely out of inner determination, but they can do so to a much greater extent than most other workers.

The vulnerability that is inherent in being on one's own helps to explain one of the characteristic shifts in career patterns that takes place. A considerable number of young people in their late teens and twenties aim high: they

look forward to becoming successful authors, to breaking through on the New York stage, to becoming important research scientists. But after years of application, they begin to read the returns and realize the desirability of shifting. Many of them opt for an organizational attachment: the unsuccessful researcher enters a government agency; the unsuccessful writer joins the public relations department of a trade association; the unsuccessful actress joins the training staff of a large utility.

Others who are forced out of individualistic enterprise, particularly small businessmen, often can do no better than look to the market for a full-time job; and some, especially those who have had to sell their businesses, may be so vulnerable that they are able to exist only on the periphery.

In addition, certain professional men, particularly physicians, give up private practice and accept bureaucratic assignments in a structured situation such as public health or join a hospital staff as full-time employees. This usually represents a permanent career shift.

2. The Organizational Group

By far the largest category in the adult male population is the organizational group. A wide array of employment structures are involved in this relationship: government, business firms, non-profit enterprises, structured labour markets, particularly in construction, transportation and manufacturing.

Organizational attachment involves employees at every skill level. At each level the same basic principles apply: jobs tend to be regular; promotions are usually made from among the existing work force; seniority plays a large part in advancement.

A few words about the paths into organizations. Most men make the transition in their early or middle twenties, shortly after completing their formal education or training. One of the implicit goals of their search to become established in the work force is to find a satisfactory position which includes opportunities for career advancement. Although most large corporations make an effort to smooth the path for baccalaureate and higher-degree recipients at the managerial and professional levels, the evidence shows that many young people do not remain with their original choice of employer and shift after a few years to another organizational relationship.

Much the same pattern holds true for the less educated and less well trained -- the white- and blue-collar work force. Here too there is considerable moving around in the early twenties as young men try themselves out and at the same time add to their knowledge of the organizational world. But by their middle or late twenties, they make a long-term commitment. Only in that way can they gain the advantages that are offered by an internal labour market with built-in protections.

Finally, most North Americans, having noted the advantages that accrue to men whose jobs are almost immune to the vagaries of the market, who are promoted regularly, who have fringe benefits and deferred income through private pension plans, have opted overwhelmingly for positions in organizations which can best be defined as "structured" markets. The organizational pattern has a great deal in its favour: employers, trade unions, and workers all tend to prefer it.

Nevertheless, there is a small but steady shift out of organizations, primarily to the individualistic group. There is the corporate executive who, when his/her children are in college, decides not to spend the last two decades of his/her working life in the same setting but starts a business of his/her own.

In addition, men who complete appenticeships, particularly in the construction trades, often become contractors, hoping to gain control of their careers, to make more money, and to enjoy more satisfactions.

Brief note should also be taken of the fact that if a large organization encounters difficulties as a result of a reduction in government expenditures, disturbed market conditions, or mergers which result in staff reductions or plant shutdowns, many men and women may have to shift to the market or the peripheral group. This is more likely to be true of those in the upper age groups, who have limited mobility and who have no transferrable skill to be used in other large units.

3. The Market Group

The market group's relationship to work is characterized by people in full-time jobs who have little opportunity for advancement, job security and comprehensive fringe benefits. Their job tenure is subject to general labour market conditions rather than to organizational relationships.

Large numbers of full-time female workers are in this category. These include many who are employed in small offices and retail establishments or as unskilled and semi-skilled factory workers. Because of marital expectations many young women often view work as of short duration and are willing to serve in jobs that hold few prospects of substantial advancement. They are loath to enter long periods of specialized training and many employers are disinclined to risk investing in them.

Many men fall within this same pattern, also. If a man comes through the preparatory process with modest educational achievement and without having acquired any specialized skill, and if he fails during the period of establishment to acquire a skill or to secure employment in an organizational structure where he will be advanced as a result of seniority, then he too will be at the mercy of the market. His adjustment to the world of work is conditioned by the fact that since he has no special skills to offer an employer he has

to accept whatever job is available. It may be a steady job — as a doorman or a hospital attendant — but it holds little promise for the future. His employer can get a replacement easily and that means that the job will pay relatively little, today or next year. Moreover, such a job offers little opportunity for advancement.

However, a small percentage of those whose employment is initially tied to market conditions, especially men, may shift over to the individualistic, the organizational, or the peripheral groups. Many men want to go into business for themselves, and some who are initially unable to, succeed after a time through a combination of savings, bank loans, and help from relatives. This is the situation of the taxi driver who buys his/her own cab or the waiter/waitress who opens a franchised diner.

Many people who belong to the market group, recognizing their vulnerability and the limited prospect of improving themselves, try to shift to an organization where their job will be more secure and the likelihood of advancement greater. Whether they succeed or not often depends on the conditions of the labour market, their age, and their circumstances.

Another possible shift for men who originally were part of the market system is to the peripheral group. This may reflect their disabil[illegible]due to illness, injury, or aging that reduces their ability to compete with oth[illegible]s. It may be psychologically grounded: a man who realizes that his future includes only a low-paying job may finally decide that it is sensible for him to work only when he needs money and not otherwise.

4. The Peripheral Group

The peripheral group includes those whose attachment to work is less than full-time, full-year. Most young people begin their encounter with the world of work in this group. While still in school, many hold part-time jobs during the school year and full-time jobs during vacations.

High school dropouts and some graduates are often in the peripheral group, either because of desire or necessity. Many young people under eighteen cannot obtain full-time jobs; some are still too unsettled by the turmoil of adolescence to work regularly, day after day; and others are unwilling to work regularly at the full-time jobs available to them. They find a job, work for a few days or a few months, and then leave, knowing that they will usually be able to find a similar job.

The largest group among peripheral workers are married women whose commitments at home lead them to seek part-time jobs.

A third type of peripheral worker is recruited from among the vulnerable members of the labour force — the released prisoner, the ex-mental-hospital patient, the recent migrant from the farm, the discouraged adult. Personal

handicaps or society's prejudices prevent them from being accepted as regular workers. They must take whatever jobs are available to them and many are unable to find more than temporary employment. Their work experience therefore is a series of short-term jobs between periods of unemployment.

The fourth type of worker in this group is composed of older persons who are on the periphery because of limited demand for their labour or because they want to work only part-time.

We see, then, that a peripheral attachment to work is characteristic of the following major groups: people who are entering the labour force, people who are in the process of withdrawing from the labour force, women who prefer to work part-time, and people who cannot find or keep a regular job.

It is quite possible that adults who were in the market, organizational or individualistic group could move to the peripheral group. It could be that because of adverse employment conditions or personal misfortune, they have lost their footing and have not been able to find another regular position in the economy. They are able to find only part-time or intermittent work.

In summary, there are few people who, during the course of their working careers, are not at some time members of the peripheral group.

C. Implications for Counsellors

These four categories of relationships to work can be considered as stations, stages or transitions in career progression. Their ordering, however, is not sequential. At various stages or transitions in one's life — the preparatory process, the period of establishment at work, or in the mature years — a person may move from the traditional category to the non-traditional category and vice versa. Any change in category or any new transition for an adult requires adjustment and in many cases assistance from a counsellor. Effective counsellors diagnose and assess the degree of assistance the individual requires to cope with the new transition. Adults for the most part will experience several recycling events or new transitions in their lives and will require assistance at various times. Usually non-traditional clients will require more counselling help.

D. Diagnosis or Assessment

This is a critical and necessary skill for all counsellors. The degree of assistance and the type of intervention must be appropriate. We can learn much from the medical model using the doctor's examination or the emergency room as it is compared to a counsellor's assessment center or office. The client could be diagnosed as — being healthy and fully functioning and needing minor remedies; having a specific defect needing specific attention, or being seriously

hurt and needing much assistance and attention. This may be an over-simplification but the process is worthy of consideration.

In summary, it has been stated that individuals in all four categories are constantly involved in a variety of career transitions that will frequently change due to circumstances often beyond their control. Counsellors need to recognize these transitions and diagnose or assess the type of intervention or strategy necessary to help the adult client.

Concepts About Adult Development

A. Introduction

A framework for the counselling of adults is a developing diverse endeavour not yet completely conceptualized (Peavy). Central to this paper is the belief that consideration of socio-economic factors as well as the study of vocational development is a perspective that is required by the adult counsellor. Adult counselling can be thought of as an educational process which attempts, recognizing the level of need, to aid the adult to change and to adapt to change, so that the results include more satisfying decisions, more successful problem-solving and in short, better adaptations to a variety of real life situations (Peavy, 1981).

B. A Common Misconception

In the common view, adulthood, in contrast to childhood and adolescence, represents stability and certainty. It is assumed that adults have made their important decisions and settled into a steady and secure pattern of living, untroubled by the uncertainties and upheavals that characterize the earlier years. But this view, is patently not true, and researchers are beginning to delve more deeply into the nature of the transitions that adults must make (Schlossberg, 1977).

C. Adults Continually Experience Transitions Requiring Adaptation and Re-assessment of Self

Schlossberg writes that adult transitions are of various kinds. Some are the result of deliberation and choice: to get married, to quit work and go back to school, to move to a warmer climate. Some are in the hands of other people: the employer who fails to give a promotion, the grown-up daughter who decides to get married, the spouse who moves out. Still other changes are beyond human control: the death of a parent or spouse. Some changes involve what have been termed role increments: marriage, the birth of a child, a job

promotion involving greater responsibilities. Others involve role diminution: divorce, retirement, widowhood.

In some cases, the changes engender feelings of excitement, expectation, satisfaction; in others, they breed frustration, depression, and unhappiness. Whether voluntary or not, whether involving an expansion or a diminution of roles, whether positive or negative in effect, all these transitions represent some degree of stress, all result in some disruption, and all require new adjustments, new assessments, and new sets of relationships.

D. Adapting to Career Transitions

Previously in this paper the writer has suggested that adults continually face changes or transitions that force them to adjust and adapt so they move from one job arena to another. Peavy writes that almost every person's work history is characterized by change — slight or great, voluntary or involuntary. A person may change employers but remain in the same field; move laterally or up the status hierarchy; take up a totally new job or career; retire from paid employment; or work in a volunteer non-paid position. Even the worker who stays in the same job at the same level throughout a working lifetime can be said to experience change with regard to his/her expectations as well as to the expectations of others. The non-occurrence of an anticipated event, such as an expected promotion, is a very significant change event requiring adaptation.

All such events as those listed above require stock-taking and adaptation. The adult counsellor needs the skills required for facilitating such adaptation by aiding clients to critically evaluate their life situations when they are disrupted by change events (Peavy, 1981).

E. Conditions for Effective Transition

What determines how successfully one makes these transitions? Why do different people react differently to the same transition? Why does the same person react differently to different transitions or even to the same type of transition at different times?

Adaptation can be viewed as successfully moving from being pervaded by a transition to integrating the change. Factors that differentiate adaptation from nonadaptation include the characteristics of one's environment pre- and post-transition, and one's individual competence at coping (Schlossberg 1977). Is the transition internally controlled or externally controlled? For example, Seidenberg (1973) pointed out the inequities of corporate moving for women, especially when the move was externally controlled.

Another set of factors predictive of adaptation is one's support system before and after the transition. A longitudinal study of the closing of two industrial plants in Michigan illustrated the effects of support systems.

In general, men who lost their jobs showed a significant elevation of cholesterol and serum uric acid, while men who did not lose their jobs showed no such changes. When examining those men who lost their jobs, those who received high social support from family and neighbours were compared with those receiving low social support. Those high in support showed no physiological changes. (Kahn 1975)

Finally, adaptation depends on an individual's competence or complexity, that is, his/her ability to process all kinds of conflicting new data and the ability to plan — in short, one's maturity.

In summary, people adapt differently to change which causes continuous reassessment. Counsellors can help by being aware of three major variables in successful adaptation to change: the transition itself, the available support systems pre- and post-transition, and the client's personal coping abilities (Schlossberg, 1977).

F. Strategies for Reassessment and Adaptation

As noted above, Schlossberg has isolated three important variables for adapting to transition, namely the transition itself, the available support systems and the client's personal coping abilities. Although this is not intended to be a comprehensive integrated strategy the writer will attempt to discuss the strategies related to these variables as well as present further considerations.

1. The Nature of the Transition

Study and research indicates that it is the unpredictable events rather than the predictable events that complicate the transition and make the adaptation more difficult and complex. The concept of control is of central importance in understanding adult vocational development, from work entry to retirement. The individual who feels in control, who believes that his/her decisions and actions make a difference, is more likely to make more appropriate career and job choices. By contrast, the individual who perceives little control of his/her life in general or his/her decisions in particular is characterized by apathy and unwillingness and/or inability to take responsibility for active job searching or career choices. It seems clear yet unfortunate that at all age ranges there are significant numbers of adults who do feel that they have little control over their own existential circumstances. They see their unemployment, their job dissatisfaction, their loneliness, their family and marriage problems as determined by factors beyond their practical control.

2. Adaptive Strategies

Adaptive strategies vary in their degree of activity, self direction and effectiveness. Miller and Star have provided a classification that describes six ways

in which people adapt to crisis. They are:

a) *Frantic activity.* Racing from one alternative to another with little or no sign of planning or contemplation. Trial and error behaviour in the extreme. Behaviour which an effective counsellor will try to reduce.

b) *Action.* Characterized at the highest level of effectiveness by the deliberate implementation of a considered or habitually useful plan. This is a type of reaction that the counsellor hopes will result from understanding and critical evaluation of the client's life situation and clarification of alternatives.

c) *Education activity.* Attempt to ameliorate or resolve a crisis situation through acquiring information or undertaking some type of learning.

d) *Seeking assistance.* Requesting advice, information and guidance on how to cope with the crisis from another person, from a counsellor, or from an agency.

e) *Contemplation.* Thinking about the change event, the consequences for one's self, and considering various possible responses to the crisis situation. This type of adaptation does not include taking action although action may follow.

f) *Withdrawal.* Characterized by such behaviours as fleeing from the situation, denying that anything is amiss, distorted thinking, considering suicide, acting helpless, and dropping into inaction and silence.

Counsellors can aid people to react in a positive manner to crisis by helping them to understand what they are going through, by stimulating problem-solving, helping set priorities, providing useful information as needed, and aiding with stress reduction (Peavy).

3. *Support Systems*

Support systems play an important role in the lives of individuals, particularly in their ability to adapt to transitions successfully. Support may come from all those with whom we have close human ties: spouse, lover, parents, children, friends. It is characterized by free, open, spontaneous interchanges and self-disclosure, by reciprocal expressions of affection, by mutual trust. Researchers have found that women often adjust more successfully to the death of a spouse than men do, primarily because women are more likely to have formed other close relationships to get them through their bereavement. Similarly, older adults seem to face the onset of old age and the approach of death much more effectively if they have close relationships with other people. Fiske and Weiss (1977) write that most adults "find the energy and motivation to

live autonomous, self-generating . . . lives only through one or more mutually supportive and intimate relationships''.

Although counsellors cannot always take the role of confidant, they can help persons-in-crisis to understand how important it is for most people to have a confidant with whom to discuss reactions, feelings, goals, and plans during a time of major change or crisis (Lowenthal, Thurnher, et al., 1975).

Perhaps adult counsellors have underestimated the use of group work and peer counselling in providing support for their adult clients.

4. *Personal Coping Abilities*

The strategy of coping abilities and decision making is a text itself much beyond the scope of this paper. However, it should be emphasized that effective implementation of this strategy is fundamental to successful negotiating and transition. Peavy writes that it is the responsibility of the adult counsellor to help clients gain or regain some feeling of control by exploring, identifying and confirming expanded alternatives, by offering guidance in the narrowing down and selection of feasible options, by stimulating self-assessment, by pointing out the methods available for self- and skill-improvement, and by making clients aware of existing resources and explaining how to get access to these resources.

The strategy becomes effective when an individual initiates efforts to adapt and ends with a resolution or to a successful adaptation.

Counsellor Involvement

In this section, the writer will review basic understandings of importance for the counsellor, the need for guidelines and systematic approaches, traditional strategies and expanded concepts and strategies.

A. Basic Understandings

Counsellors need to have an understanding of adults and their transitions, as distinct from adolescents; an understanding of their clients' backgrounds, concerns and needs; an understanding of current social and economic conditions and the labour market; and knowledge of information sources and career development techniques, as well as the competencies to use these knowledges and techniques.

As discussed previously in this paper, the counsellor should draw implications for his/her work by reviewing career development theories; various definitions of career guidance; social and economic factors as they impact on the labour market and adult clients; types of clients (traditional and non-traditional)

and their work in individualistic, organizational, market and peripheral positions; and factors related to adult transitions.

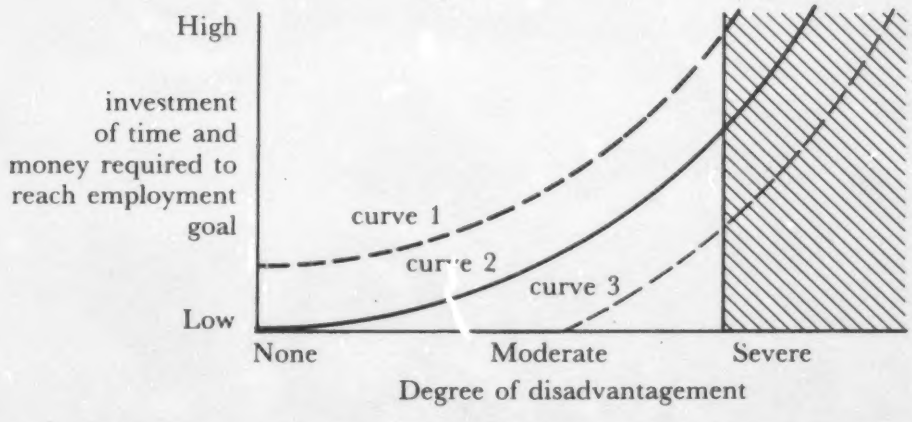
B. Clientele

Counsellors need to have an understanding of what their role is and what services they can and cannot provide. With this understanding, they should have the training and support to service clients deemed appropriate for their agency.

The assessment of client population is an important factor to consider. Canada has a diverse population, with differences in culture, language, race and social class representing potential difficulties for clients joining and succeeding in the world of work. The mission of CEIC with respect to obligations to serve various populations must be clearly spelled out. Thus various clientele groups, such as the physically handicapped, mentally restored, racial and cultural minorities, public offenders, and youths need to be identified and specific responsibilities for assistance clarified. The issue here is the determination as to whether CEIC is to become "the agency of last resort" for problems relating to employment, whatever their severity.

It is possible for an employment program to be overwhelmed unless clear mission and clientele limits are specified. It is not only commonsensical, but well documented in the literature (Miller and Oetting, 1977; Cooper, 1977; Farmer, 1978; Zunker, 1981) that counsellor investment in clients rises steeply as the degree of client disadvantagement rises. One may propose a degree of non-linearity between the amount of assistance required to become employable and degree of disadvantagement (Figure 1).

Disadvantagement and Service Investment
Figure 1



The different curves, 1, 2 and 3 in Figure 1 represent increasingly benign general economic times. A loose labour market will permit the absorption of more severely disadvantaged into the work force than when the labour market is afflicted with high levels of unemployment. However, the *shape* of the curve remains and severely disadvantaged clients require disproportionately more services regardless of the unemployment rate. The shaded portion of Figure 1 on the right represents clients, who by reason of the severity of their problems are not able to be served by the organization, given its available techniques and resources.

What is needed for such a decision is a reasonably reliable and valid means of assessing client disadvantagement level — and therefore of predicting the relative difficulty of successfully serving the client. While no off-the-shelf instrument to accomplish this exists, there are a number of promising directions for developing such an instrument.

"Triage." Surgeons in military field hospitals developed a simple classification system for the wounded brought to them. As the term implies, 3 categories were established that enabled the hospitals to deploy their resources to greatest effect.

– This one will die no matter what we do.
— This one must have immediate attention to survive.
— This one can wait for a while for attention without danger of dying. The triage analogy may be applied as well to human service agencies where not life or death is the outcome issue, but rather service success. It is not necessary to retain just three categories. As one possibility, four categories may be logically derived:

— this client is unlikely to become employable no matter what;
— this client will require multiple, intensive services over a long time;
— this client requires a particular available counselling service;
— this client can make it essentially without help.

It appears that this type of diagnosis relates well to the four types of employment positions previously discussed as individualistic, organizational, market and peripheral. Traditional and non-traditional clients require varied services and attention.

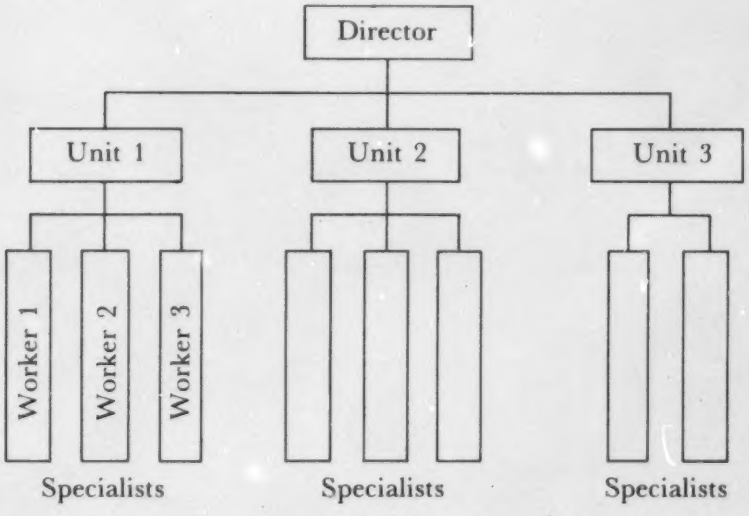
C. Staffing

The two most common staffing arrangements are the following:

1. *The Functional Unit Model.* In this model, clients move into the system and in the manner of an automobile on an assembly line, receive sequential attention from several specialists (intake workers, counsellors, training specialists and placement specialists). This system offers certain advantages: ease

of scheduling, flexibility of assignment and clarity of responsibility, managers tend to be comfortable with such a system because it resembles traditional hierarchic arrangements that pervade bureaucracies. The organization is arranged hierarchically:

Functional Unit Organization
Figure 2

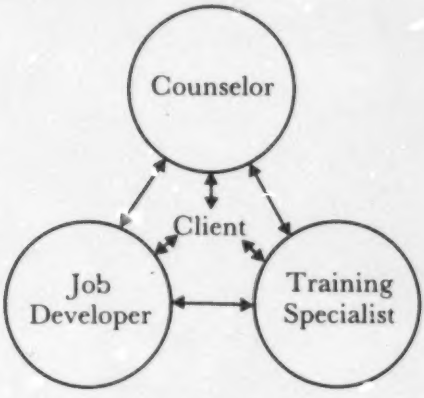


Unit 1 has a functional responsibility and workers 1, 2 and 3 have similar professional identities and duties. The clients tend to move laterally through the system, from unit to unit. The disadvantages of such an arrangement are equally clear:

— Coordination of services among units is difficult.
— Clear responsibility for a client is difficult to pinpoint.
— In the context of relationship counselling, the movement of clients across units is hard to justify. (The continuity of service issue).

2. *The Team Arrangement.* Many human service organizations have arranged their workers into interdisciplinary teams. This arrangement undoubtedly had its prorotype in the case staffing session wherein various professionals (e.g. nurse, physician, psychiatrist, social worker) would meet to discuss and plan for a particular shared case. (Brill, 1976; Wicks, 1977) The team is a permanent manifestation of the staffing idea. Several specialists offer services out of a group setting to a specified number of clients who remain the responsibility of the team from intake through follow-up. (Figure 3)

3 Person Team Configuration
Figure 3



The advantages of the team arrangement when working with a limited caseload are:

1. Wider expertise than with one person service.
2. Opportunity for increased use of paraprofessionals.
3. Closer integration of different aspects of service.
4. Emphasis on cooperation, mutuality rather than competition.
5. Group dynamics promote growth and renewal of members.

Liabilities of team practice include:

1. As a democratic process, team action may be slow.
2. Possible difficulties in member communications.
3. Team meetings may be time consuming.
4. Role definitions of team members may be unclear.

On balance, the team approach to providing client services bears careful examination as an alternative to the traditional arrangement.

A few additional comments regarding the use of paraprofessionals as team members seem appropriate. Advantages of using paraprofessionals include:

1. Their mobility in entering the milieu of non-traditional clients.
2. Their ability to establish peer relationships with clients of similar background and culture.
3. Their use as a role model for client emulation.

4. Their ability to make certain types of clients more at ease and to be willing to be involved and participate in counselling related to their concern or transition.

D. Model and Approach

Various models for counselling adults in career development and transition have been proposed. Traditionally these models have focused on the counsellor as providing aid to another person in understanding:

1. Themselves and their environment
2. Career information
3. Career exploration opportunities
4. Decision-making processes
5. Steps involved in career planning
6. Factors in employment, training or educational placement

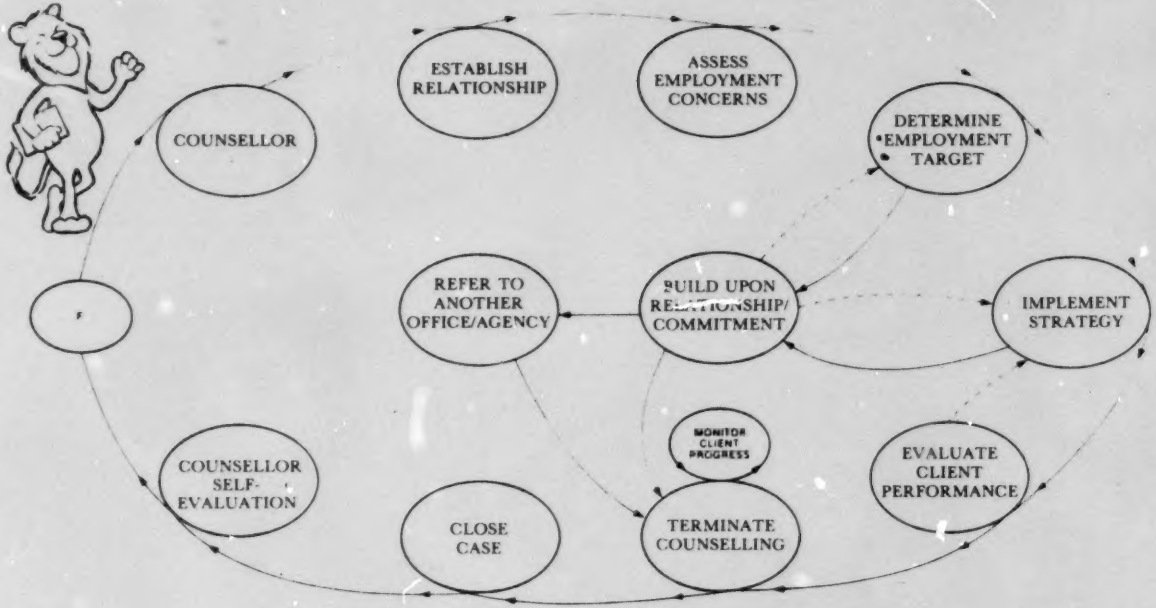
Therefore, five basic areas of concern are self-awareness and understanding; career awareness and exploration; decision-making; planning and placement.

Bezanson and DeCoff have prepared a very thorough model for employment counsellors of the CEIC, entitled "Individual Employment Counselling: A Systematic Approach." Their excellent work covers the areas previously listed, as well as providing strategies for learning, self-management and evaluation of client performance. The reader is referred to this work for specific strategies and suggestions.

An overview of this systematic employment counselling model is provided in the following Figure as taken from page 41 of their work.

While recognizing the value of Bezanson and DeCoff's work, it is important to note that adults may be in varying stages of development and transition. It may not be easy or practicable to involve all clients in their counselling sequence. This may be especially true for non-traditional clients who may need additional personal support or non-traditional types of aid.

At what point in the counselling process the counsellor begins, depends on the needs of that particular client and their expectations of the counselling services. With the adult client, the counsellor needs to determine which of his/her skills, information and techniques might be of benefit to the client. If the counsellor does not have the appropriate skills or information, the client should be referred to another counsellor or agency. If the counsellor has the appropriate skills or information, a plan for the counselling process should be agreed on by both the counsellor and the client.



Overview of Systematic Employment Counselling
Figure 4

This writer agrees with Peavy (1981), that philosophical counselling theories and conceptions may not be appropriate for adult clients in transition. His pragmatic view is based on the fact that clients need help with problems in daily living, which may or may not relate directly to job training or placement. One needs to recognize clients as human beings who want to be understood and then aided in resolving their concerns. When it is appropriate for the counsellor to focus on systematic employment counselling — fine, it should be done. But when another approach or intervention is needed, that should be done through proper referrals if necessary.

In sum, specific and thorough models have been developed to work with clients of human service agencies, including employment service agencies. Yet, the counsellor should recognize that various approaches are needed for the diversity of adult clients. One should not neglect a personal concern and approach on the part of the counsellor, which may be as important to the client as a systematic counselling process.

In the remainder of this section, some considerations for counsellors will be discussed as they relate to both traditional and non-traditional clients. It is not a purpose of this paper to describe detailed programs, as done so well by Bezanson and DeCoff, but rather to point out in a general sense some major considerations for the counsellors of adults in transition.

E. Traditional Clients

1. Self-Awareness and Understanding

Traditional clients may have a better grasp of their interests, values, abilities, aptitudes, experiences and expectations than non-traditional clients.

Techniques which could be utilized by the counsellor include:

a) paper and pencil inventories, as the Canadian Occupational Interest Inventory, Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, Holland's Self-Directed Search, General Aptitude Test Battery.

b) client written information, as job history questionnaire, autobiography, work experience resume,

c) computerized programs, as Discover, and System of Interactive Guidance and Information, CHOICES,

d) simulated work samples, as Singer and Valpar,

e) programs, as ICO and YPOS.

2. Career Awareness

In this area, the counsellor aids the client in looking at various occupational possibilities, qualifications, skills, expectations and lifestyles.

Techniques which might be used include:

a) providing written information, as Careers Provinces/Careers Canada, Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations and Encyclopedia of Careers,

b) providing computerized information, as Discover, Computerized Vocational Information System, CHOICES,

c) audio-visual information, as Vital Information for Education and Work, McGraw Hill Career Interviews cassette series, and television and radio programs,

d) providing experiences, as interviews with workers, field internships, and field trips.

3. Decision-Making

The counsellor describes and leads the client through a decision-making model.

Techniques which would be used include:

a) Peavy's pragmatic model

b) Healy's "Stepping Stones" approach

c) ETS "Decisions and outcomes"

Basic to the majority of decision-making models are the following steps:

a) determining the concern

b) projecting possible alternative actions

c) review possible consequences of each alternative action

d) choose best alternative at this time

e) decide how and when to implement the alternative

f) implement it

g) evaluate result of action

h) determine if a related decision needs to be made now

In addition some computer programs now have decision making modules, as in CHOICES and in Discover.

4. Planning

In this area, the counsellor aids the client in reviewing self awareness, career awareness, and decision-making processes, as they relate to a client's need to plan a program to aid in transition.

Techniques which may be used include:

a) Friel and Carkhuff's model for systematic planning, and

b) Doane's "next step" planning as done in the Vocational Exploration Group.

The counsellor may become very directive in this process in helping the client develop a plan to achieve a goal and teach the client how to follow this process in the future. The following steps seem basic to the planning process:

a) determine a goal,

b) determine steps to be followed in attaining this goal,

c) outline these steps in sequence,

d) determine actions necessary to complete the steps

e) determine a timeline for achieving these steps

f) set a beginning date and start implementing the plan

g) the plan should be periodically reviewed by the client and counsellor and revised if it seems appropriate.

5. Placement

The counsellor aids the client in placing him/herself in a job, or a training program. This placement should be as realistic as possible for the client based on the four previous career development areas — self-awareness, career-awareness, awareness of decision-making processes, and planning.

Techniques which may be used include:

a) aiding the client in learning how to interview for a job, prepare a resume. etc.

b) show the client how to find and review employment notices in newspapers, job vacancy bulletins, etc.

c) provide the client with information regarding:
— job requirements and expectations
— training program requirements and expectations

d) provide the client with information regarding the effect of one's placement on:
   — financial rewards
   — financial costs
   — financial aids or support

Again, it should be noted that the above approaches are traditional and work best with traditional clients who are looking at individualistic and organizational positions of employment. These clients would most probably relate to their transitional tasks with a more self-directed approach and less need for direct support from the counsellor and a support group.

F. Non-Traditional Clients

Before reviewing the five general areas of career transition concerns, it must be noted that many of the techniques and strategies that were mentioned as applying to traditional clients, might in many cases also apply to some non-traditional clients. The counsellor needs to recognize the type of client and his/her specific needs before he/she begins working with them.

Strategies mentioned as appropriate for traditional clients will not be repeated here except as they can be expanded or related directly to non-traditional clients, who are most apt to be looking at market and peripheral employment opportunities.

1. Self-Awareness

Non-traditional clients may be best helped through the use of specialized assessment centres. In these centres, the following approaches should be considered:

a) The work samples approach offers considerable promise for assessment of non-traditional clients. Whatever approach is used, and there are several good ones: e.g. JEVS' Work Samples, Singer and Valpar; the advantages over paper and pencil instruments are notable. They offer:

1. A wide range of occupational data
2. Personality and behavioural information related to the world of work
3. Construct validity unobtainable by usual means
4. Supplemental observations by the evaluators
5. High motivational forces for clients
6. Suitability for non-traditional clients

The disadvantage of these techniques is expense. They require considerable outlays for equipment, staff training and facilities. However, where a

strong mandate to serve special client groups is evident, the use of a work samples type of assessment can add significantly to the goal formation process.

If the work samples approach is chosen as a means of assessment, an assessment centre may be utilized as a setting for all client assessment beyond the ordinary. Thus a range of assessment devices may be brought to bear on clients for whom ordinary testing and self assessment aren't sufficient or appropriate.

b) Techniques going beyond the ordinary which might be sensibly employed in working with non-traditional clients include:

1. Pretesting orientation: the U.S. Department of Labor has developed two approaches to the problem of poor test motivation and lack of test skills. These are termed Pre-testing Orientations. The first is on the purpose of testing, and is designed to overcome ignorance and suspicion about the testing process; the second includes practice items similar to the actual test items and insures familiarity with the paper and pencil tasks required. Both have been used extensively in the United States with good results (Droege et al, 1978). Additional materials are available on achievement tests as well.) Commercial versions of pretesting orientation are available from various publishers.

2. Tests designed especially for non-traditional illiterate clients

a. The nonreading version of the GATB, the NATB, is notable among these instruments. Developed at great expense by the U.S. Department of Labor, it was modified several times to increase its suitability for the disadvantaged.

b. The ABLE (Adult Basic Learning Examination, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich), an achievement instrument standardized on disadvantaged adults, derived from the Metropolitan Achievement Test, is an appropriate test of various scholastic achievements and enjoys wide successful usage in the U.S. The test items are specifically designed to reflect *adult* concerns and situations.

c. Test of General Ability (SRA) is another achievement instrument suitable for the non-traditional clients when measuring overall learning ability. It yields measures of ability to understand meanings, recognize relationships and basic concepts, and basic reasoning ability.

d. The Chicago Nonverbal Examination (Harcourt Brace Jovanovich) is an intelligence test designed specifically for the reading impaired or for those reared in foreign language environments. It may be administered with verbal or pantomimed directions.

e. The Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT, Jastak and Jastak) has enjoyed widespread use in employability programs and has also been stand-

ardized using disadvantaged samples. Its special strength lies in the great range of ability it quickly assesses, and therefore its suitability for a wide variety of clients.

f. The Basic Occupational Literacy Test (BOLT, USES) specifically designed to measure reading and arithmetic achievement with adults, including the disadvantaged. While somewhat complex and difficult to administer, the BOLT is especially well validated and keys directly to U.S. Department of Labor General Educational Development requirements for jobs in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. Since CEIC uses this system in its CCDO and allied service techniques, the BOLT is especially useful in career counselling and employability development programs in Canada.

2. Career Awareness

For the non-traditional client, it seems appropriate that the counsellor avoid written material when appropriate. Those who have difficulty in reading and using printed materials should be provided with other means of obtaining information about careers and job opportunities.

With proper introduction, a computerized program such as CHOICES or Discover might be used. Audio cassettes and video cassettes as the Reed Career Series could be used effectively. Perhaps best of all for these clients are hands-on, face-to-face experiences. These experiences could include:

a) direct participation, as on-the-job tryouts

b) simulations of the original tasks, involving games, models and mock-ups

c) role playing experiences

d) field trips to business and industry, especially where the clients can observe and question the workers

e) demonstrations of job functions by counsellors or career resource persons

f) use of charts, graphs and diagrams to present career options and trends

g) interviews of relatives or friends who hold jobs of interest to these clients.

The major point here is that these adult clients learn about careers and not be turned off by traditional, bookish approaches. They tend to hold misperceptions of the world of work as they are influenced by:

i) limited specific occupational information

ii) presence of inaccurate information

iii) lack of appealing alternatives

iv) changing requirements for an occupation

v) fear of the occupational world

3. Decision Making and Planning

The same principles regarding decision making and planning apply to non-traditional as well as traditional clients. However, in these areas of concern, group procedures are strongly suggested for non-traditional clients.

Group procedures allow adult clients, who might feel out of place in other settings, to meet together to share common feelings, problems, hopes and fears. Also, they can create a strong peer group which can provide support to group members as they attempt to change attitudes or to try new behaviours. This group setting can provide a safe climate in which to explore self, career information, the decision making process, and to formulate plans. Groups also encourage better communication between the members and the group leader, which aids the participants to clarify and understand information and the group leader to better understand client needs.

Approaches as reinforcement, social modeling, simulation, value clarification and achievement motivation all can be effectively used in groups. In particular, decision making and planning for individuals can be facilitated by group interaction.

One group program that aids participants to make decisions and plan for actions is entitled Vocational Exploration Group (VEG). This partially structured group experience was formulated by Doane (1969) for work with disadvantaged youth in employment programs. It can be readily adapted for use with non-traditional clients.

In the VEG experience, the group leader (counsellor) aids group members to review job functions, job demands, and job satisfactions. The activities are sequenced through a number of structured tasks. The group begins with inclusion activities, to reduce the fear of exploration, then examines the world of work via a twofold matrix of job function (data-people-things) and job preparation (training on the job, special skill training, college). Next the group shares information they have about jobs and uses graphic materials to acquire additional job information. Following that, job demands, job satisfiers, and training needs are explored by recalling past experiences and reviewing counsellor provided materials. The members then expand their possible career options by relating one job to several others. Finally the group promotes decision making on the part of each individual as each person chooses an occupational short term goal and then formulates a planning process to reach that goal beginning with an identified "next step" toward it.

Completely structured groups also bear considerable promise in working with non-traditional clients. These groups can be powerful tools to facilitate

growth at the appropriate point in an individual's development. The structure allows the group leader to:

1. Focus on a precise goal and goal relevant activities
2. Amplify learning by converging resources and exercises
3. Assess the degree of goal accomplishment for each group member.

Middleman and Goldberg (1972) discuss these essential values:

> "A structured learning situation is a closed system deliberately constructed and set in motion by a trainer and facilitator. It has a boundary which separates it from the talk about the situation as well . . . within this boundary a set of conditions is established which affects the roles and/or rules, and/or processes of interaction. Finally, the trainer or facilitator introduces a task to be pursued under the structured conditions. This task constitutes the moving dynamics of the learning situation. Participants must function within those particular conditions and experience both the opportunities for and constraints on pursuit of the task and human behaviour in general that are generated by these conditions."

When combined with the efficacious small group process, structured learning experiences become exponentially powerful.

A number of structured groups are detailed by Drum and Knott (1977). These authors divide structured groups into three general categories: Life Skills Groups, Life Theme Groups and Life Transitions Groups. While all three have potential for assisting the non-traditional client, Life Skills Groups, especially with decision making and career planning components are very appropriate. Others in this category, such as anxiety management, assertion training and interpersonal skills may also have applicability for certain types of clients.

What all of these groups have in common is their developmental focus.

> "Structured groups represent one important intervention useful in resolving critical developmental tasks when they first arise. Perhaps the most compelling value of the early intervention capability of structured groups is that, by enabling persons to resolve or fulfill a developmental task, they can prevent normal growth needs from deteriorating and becoming the basis for future life problems. The failure to accomplish adequately an earlier developmental task has been shown time and time again to compound the difficulty in fulfilling subsequent needs and tasks in the developmental process." (Drum and Knott, 1977, p. 17)

The issue of ongoing developmental challenges throughout life — at midlife and beyond — has been amply documented (Gould, 1972; Levinson, et

al, 1974; Poland, 1974; Lidz, 1976; Sheehy, 1976.) The pace of change as an ongoing phenomenon demands the acquisition of coping and adaptation skills earlier in life and that individuals exercise those skills throughout life. This is especially relevant in the work arena for non-traditional clients, where they may be required to negotiate a career transition a number of times in life.

In sum, the writer proposes that group work, structured or semi-structured, be used more extensively with non-traditional clients, especially as group procedures can promote adult clients' involvement in decision making and personal planning. An additional plus is that counsellors, when trained in facilitating structured groups, often find client contact less threatening and feel more secure in their work with clients. Incentives to recruit non-traditional clients may be useful.

4. Placement

Placement is often difficult for non-traditional clients who have not been successful in placing themselves in the past. Often these clients are fearful and apprehensive about possible placements.

Again, group work may be helpful in this phase of career transition counselling. Job Finding Clubs, as formulated by Azrin (1976) allow for much group support of individual members as they work, with suggestions from others, to locate placements.

It may well be that other than traditional types of placements should be considered for these clients. Perhaps job shadowing or observations could be considered as initial or preplacement activities. Placement of groups of clients in one location might be beneficial to the employer and continue providing a base of peer support for the clients.

Follow-up of clients on a post placement basis seems essential for non-traditional clients. Developmental theory and reality experiences indicate that a client's entrance into a new life transition (as acquiring a job) can trigger a developmental crisis. Therefore, counselling or other supportive attention should be provided for after job placement. The writer feels this follow-up should be considered part of the placement service, particularly so for non-traditional clients in market and peripheral positions.

G. *Summary*

In this section of the paper, various forms of counsellor involvement were explored. It is of extreme importance to note that the adult client's status be determined and that counsellor interventions focus on the client needs and not only relate to a planned counselling program.

It seems very appropriate to use existing programs, as the Bezanson and DeCoff systematic model, as they relate to individual clients or types of clients.

Various populations and situations will mandate tailored programs and approaches. An understanding of adult development, client environment and expectations and implications of transitions need to be wedded to any delivery model for employment counselling.

Counselling strategies should follow a sequenced approach when possible. However, client readiness for involvement and willingness to participate in a program must be considered. As mentioned previously, referral to another counsellor or agency may be the best thing for certain clients. Counsellors should provide services and use techniques only when they have been properly trained in their use.

Finally, it seems important to emphasize the need for methods to support both traditional and non-traditional clients in a personal and humane manner. Counsellors need to recognize the importance of personal self-concept for all clients and to facilitate the best possible "goodness of fit" for the individual clients as they make transitions to new positions. Use of peer counsellors, paraprofessionals, and group procedures may be ways to increase support systems for those clients whose primary needs seem to be understanding and support.

Future Issues, Directions and Strategies

Although this paper has focused primarily on employment counselling services for adult clients, many issues and concerns regarding the entire field of adult counselling have become apparent. Very briefly, these concerns will be listed with the hope that needed attention will be given and appropriate programs will be developed and supported in the future. Following this outline, the writer has highlighted some of the issues and suggests some directions and strategies for the future.

A. Issues

The issues in the professional and administrative area are:

a) Knowledge of adult development and transition concepts.

b) Professionalism in counselling.

c) Appropriate training provided to work as counsellors of adults in a variety of settings, as in government agencies, halfway houses, and in business.

d) Provision for research and development.

e) Futuristics, eg. implications of robotics.

f) Contracting out for specialized services such as training and diagnosis.

g) Determination of accountability.

h) Programs and materials developed consistent with national and provincial priorities.

i) Understanding of agency service limits and responsibilities.

Issues related to service and delivery areas are:

a) Weighing clients needs and determining appropriate case load.

b) Counsellors need to deal with a wide diversity of target groups in transition with an increasing number of non-traditional clients.

c) Teamwork within agencies and networking which implies high levels of inter-agency collaboration.

d) Plant closures result in increased new non-traditional clients in communities.

e) Use of peer counselling.

f) Use of paraprofessionals.

g) Further development of group work procedures.

h) Increase study of sample testing and importance of assessment.

i) Provision of counselling programs for:

  i) drug and alcohol abuse relating to employability
  ii) marriage issues affecting employability
  iii) dual careers and their impact on employability
  iv) pre-retirement programs
  v) stress and burnout in maintaining employment

j) Outreach; moving to the clients.

k) Further collaboration with business and industry, such as field experience for counsellors as well as clients.

l) Counsellors need to properly use industrial orientation, role models, new technology; including computers, films and video and audio cassettes.

m) Development of 'readiness' for counselling for adult clients through orientation programs.

n) Development of better skills to assist clients in decision making.

o) Counsellors need to act as change agents and often be an advocate for the client.

B. Strategies and Future Directions

The remainder of this paper provides some directions and strategies that could be considered in shaping the future of the adult counselling employment field.

1) The Professional and Administrative Directions and Strategies

a) *Adult Development*

Volumes have been written about child and adolescent development. Universities offer a wide variety of training related to effective practices in dealing with these two major groups. It has only been recently that institutions are recognizing the reality of life long learning. An increasing number of adults are returning to be retrained in both full and part time courses. Demographic data predicts that there will be a major shift in our societal mix and an ever increasing number of adults will be seeking available counselling services.

Strategies are required to prepare professionals to design and offer counselling and guidance services to a large array of adults. They range from; the younger adult to the disadvantaged adult, to the adult affected by technological change, to the increasing number of seniors. There is a need to know more about adult development so that effective assistance can be provided for the continuous career transitions that many adults will face.

b) *Professionalism*

As previously suggested, there is a need to systematically understand adult development and prepare professionals to deliver programs to this target group. Both national and provincial strategies are required to bring "new professionalism" to this movement. Standards should be established; certification programs should be studied; research and publications should be encouraged; provincial and national organizations should be initiated and supported; training programs should be fostered and consultations, workshops, symposiums, seminars, and training aids could all contribute to this growing profession. We cannot wait for armchair methods. Action programs are required now if this growing profession is to achieve its potential to meet the diverse client needs.

c) *Training*

There have been some excellent initiatives in this area. To mention a few, the Vocational Counselling program at Acadia University, the Adult Educa-

tion graduate programs (e.g. at OISE), the training initiatives developed by OCAD, the project on Human Resource Development at Niagara College, and a host of many other excellent studies and programs. However, it appears the field is lacking a professional identity. These practices appear as fragments and are accessible to few people. Strategies are required to share exceptional training materials and programs. This present piecemeal approach could make a significantly greater impact if new strategies were examined, and new approaches were employed that build on what is already in place rather than re-invent the wheel. There are far too many adults who will require service and the leading professionals in the field have an obligation to provide strategies for training to prepare and/or upgrade the many practitioners who are counselling and working with younger or older adults in institutions and agencies in a variety of community settings.

d) *Research and Development*

The future counsellor of adults will require tools, skills and programs that are theoretically sound. *Action research projects* are required if this challenge is to be met. Both federal and provincial initiatives, or cooperative initiatives should be fostered if we are to provide programs and services that will assist Canadian adults to be effective contributors to society. Perhaps the greatest challenge is to develop a strategy to ensure theoretical frameworks are developed and translated into effective practices.

e) *Futuristics*

The most predictable phenomenon agreed to by professionals from all disciplines is that the future will bring *continuous change*. Many counsellors are assisting young adults to prepare for a world that will not exist when it comes their turn to play out their roles. We are told that we face a future of robotics, computers and other technological devices. To what extent has this been studied and what adaptations are being planned for the way we deliver counselling services to these young aspiring adults? Perhaps it is not realistic or even practical for practitioners to study the future. However, this investigator feels that the leaders in the field should establish a vehicle or strategy to synthesize the future implications of our rapidly changing society and provide mechanisms to translate this to the practitioners working in the field.

f) *Contracting for Services*

There will continue to be a demand for increased specialized services. The need for better accountability systems, better training programs and for new service programs will persist. A viable strategy currently employed by managers is that of contracting for specialized services. This can be done effec-

tively when those in leadership positions provide a sound conceptualization for the scope and variety of programs necessary to meet the apparent needs. This approach provides immediate specialized skills and can be very cost effective, especially when the work does not require continuity. It is suggested that all administrators of counselling and adult services gives serious consideration to this potentially powerful strategy in order to increase the range of specialized services required for a comprehensive delivery.

g) *Accountability*

Our society demands that professionals exhibit the results of their work and effort. Most of the systems presently used are quantitative and do not adequately reflect the outcomes. Strategies are required to measure counselling and program outcomes so that professionals are not only able to justify existing staff but request increased resources when they can be documented.

h) *Strategies for Keeping Pace*

The federal and provincial governments are constantly reviewing societal needs and initiating priority programs. High technology is one of the current priorities reported and discussed both in the recently published Allmand and Dodge Reports. Often programs are mounted without any consideration of new or modified counselling and guidance support systems. The support systems, whether they be information services, or specialized assessment programs, are often crucial to the success of the new initiatives. It is suggested that strategies for priority programs consider the required support systems.

2. The Service and Delivery Directions and Strategies

a) *Weighting Client Needs*

Counsellors are faced with a wide range of individual client problems. Often counsellor supervisors demand reports, statistics and time utilization studies and judge the results as if all client problems were exactly the same. Better methods of assessing the difficulty of client problems and realistic time required to assist them is needed. Strategies to develop mechanisms and make supervisors aware of this strategy are needed.

b) *A Wide Range of Target Groups Require Specialized Strategies*

As the mandate for adult counselling and guidance broadens, leaders will need to re-examine the utility and appropriateness of existing materials and programs to serve their diverse clients. Future targets include seminars and workshops for: adults preparing for retirement; adults in mid-career shift; special groups including women, handicapped, natives, ex-offenders, and other minorities. Younger adults continue to be unemployed and are also growing

in numbers. The purpose, relevance and utility of all existing programs need to be scrutinized as we develop strategies for a wide variety of target groups with very different needs.

c) *Team Work and Networking*

Perhaps the medical model best illustrates the team approach. The physician, the nurse, the psychologist, the social workers, the pathologist all work in a coordinated fashion to bring a variety of specialized skills together to help a patient in need. This model should be examined by agencies working with adults. These agencies may have differing mandates but their single purpose is to assist an adult client in need. This may be enhanced through effective coordination.

In a large CEC office, administrators may even consider orchestrating their different counselling specialists by assigning them to teams. The composition and roles would need to be studied but the concept should be considered.

d) *New Non-Traditional Clients*

The data in this paper indicates there is an increasing number of well qualified executives that are being dislocated due to the impact on the auto related industries. Strategies are required to assist these individuals to adapt. Perhaps, already established professional placement services for executives in the private sector might be employed by a variety of adult government agencies using a contractual or voucher system.

Plant closures will also create a new clientele in need of career assessment and placement assistance. There continues to be a number of adults considering a mid-career change. The number of women returning to the work force is increasing. Strategic deliveries for these groups of 'growing new clients' need to be developed if services are to be provided to meet these growing trends.

e) *Peer Counselling*

Peer counsellors are generally thought of as students who provide assistance to other students to help them think through concerns they are experiencing. This writer believes there is much potential for this concept in adult counselling services. One requirement that is necessary in negotiating a career transition is to know where to go to get information. Personal support systems are also necessary. Peer helpers could be very helpful in this role. It is my belief that many individuals will move through a transition with little or no assistance but there are many who could benefit from a strategy of a peer helper. This is particularly true with special targets. A few illustrations might prove useful.

Working with ex-offenders can only be done by a person who knows the culture and problems of that group or the intervention will not be accepted.

This is also the case in working with natives, who do not trust someone who is not aware of their particular needs. The same notion is true of younger adults who are affected significantly by peers. A strategy to prepare identified peer helpers with specific skills for specific target groups merits serious consideration.

f) *Paraprofessionals*

Differentiated staffing is both an established and growing trend in all fields. The medical field have done an excellent job of creating and defining a variety of roles that require different levels of skills that fit a professional matrix. An example of the paraprofessional is the nursing assistant.

The wide variety of adult target groups, the large scope of services and the range of skills required, suggest that a clear strategy with differing professional requirements is worthy of serious consideration. For example, should we not separate the role of test administration from test interpretation? Does the placement officer who works with industry need the same skills as counsellors working with clients with personal decision-making problems? These are a few illustrations that suggest leaders in the field should begin to conceptualize and redefine roles that require different skills, different training, and probably different certification.

g) *Group Work*

Since World War II there has been an increasing interest in group work. There has been an emphasis on training counsellors to work with both structured and unstructured programs. Group work provides several advantages; it is economical in that counsellors can use their time with many clients; it can be used to transmit information which can be costly and time consuming if done individually; it provides a climate for peer assistance and support systems; specific outcomes can be identified especially for structured groups. Groups have been known to be used most effectively in educational institutions.

Agencies working with adults need to develop more effectively strategies to use group work. Attention could be given to training counsellors and devising systems for implementing group programs. Every agency especially CEC's could benefit from group information strategies. Video tapes or films could be developed and managed by clerical staff. Vocational Exploration groups would be very useful if appropriately planned and used. Certainly, an area worth careful consideration by all professionals in adult counselling.

h) *Testing and Assessment*

Testing and assessment programs have been an integral part of guidance and counselling services since their inception. However, it does not appear that this development has kept pace with the rapidly increasing demands from

our technological society. The writer appreciates the complexity and difficulty of such development but feels it should be considered. For example, both provincial and national strategies have been announced to train in high technology. This can be very expensive if the candidates do not have the required aptitudes and abilities. Perhaps in this high priority area one strategy might be to develop work sample testing programs. There are several being used both in Canada and in the United States. It would appear that a strategy to investigate and pilot the use of such tests would merit consideration. Major career shifts due to plant closures are going to demand relevant testing and assessment programs if society is to continue to employ its manpower effectively.

i) *Alternative Programming and Skills*

Professionals in adult counselling have worked to identify core competencies or generic skills to train their counsellors. Professionals are beginning to consider related skills and programs where counsellors should have some working knowledge. Examples are assertive training, dealing with stress and burnout, retirement counselling, alcohol and drug abuse counselling and even marriage counselling. Although counsellors cannot be expected to be fully skilled in all these areas they should have sufficient knowledge to understand the problems and make appropriate referrals. Societal problems are complex and counsellors will continue to discover a wide range of related problems that are career impediments. Counsellors can only hope to effectively assess the nature of the problem and help move the client towards an effective solution. Often individuals who are assisted with personal career related problems become more effective in the work place.

j) *Extending Services: Reaching Out to Clients*

Many adult clients in need of assistance will not use the established bureaucracies. If these clients are to be reached, we require a strategy that takes services to the people to meet them in their own cultures. This suggests using community facilities, industrial facilities, mobile vehicles and travelling counsellors. This means reaching out to neighbourhood centres, to rural areas, to Indian reservations, and even prisons to deliver services. Community based deliveries are growing in popularity and effectiveness. We need to sophisticate strategies for effective alternative outreach services if the differing target groups are to be served.

k) *Counsellors and Work World*

Central to counselling adults who are seeking occupational information is whether the counsellor helps the client use occupational inputs in clarifying

his goals. However, the more the counsellors know about the world of work, especially the local situation, the better they will be able to do their job. A major criticism levied against adult career counsellors is that they are poorly informed about economic and occupational trends especially at the local level. This not only contributes to ineffective counselling but it results in a loss of confidence in the counselling and placement service by local business and industry. Adult counsellors, particularly CEC, should have a well formulated information and training strategy that not only keeps them abreast of labour market information, but places them in contact with the industry they serve, through well designed training and visitation programs.

In recent years, there was a program attempt by the Ontario Ministry of Education to provide training programs to familiarize and update counsellors in business and industry. Career development institutes co-sponsored by education and large industry have been organized at both Oakland and Wayne State Universities in Michigan.

These models are worthy of investigation if we are to effectively equip adult counsellors with the necessary training and skills to help their clients relocate in the work world.

l) *Reality Testing: Action Approaches to Guidance*

Super has documented the need for young adults to 'test reality'. This suggests that better information for decision-making can be achieved by simulating, to the greatest possible extent, the real world. This calls for career guidance action activities. It suggests that guidance activities such as job visitations, speaking with role models, films and other video and audio materials should replace many of the volumes of paper based information presently in use. The popularity of CHOICES and the Reed Career film series are illustrations of this concept. The rapid technological development of training aids in our society offer much promise to this type of program delivery.

m) *Client Readiness*

The literature suggests that active client participation is required if outcomes of counselling are to be successful. Often clients are not prepared to actively use the services because they do not know what to expect. The Alberta Career Centre's Orientation to Counselling Services video tape is designed for this purpose. Similar strategies should be investigated if counsellor time is to be used effectively.

n) *Systematizing Decision-Making*

Research has established conceptual frameworks for counsellors to better understand the decision-making process. Much work has been done to under-

stand the component parts and how they might function. However, research and systems are still required to teach counsellors to lead an individual through the decision-making process. We are aware of the continual transitions in the life of an adult. We need better skills to assist clients in their decision-making processes as they negotiate their career transitions.

o) *Advocacy*

Counsellors are aware of the way in which society often impacts unjustly on their clients. Counsellors need strategies to act as advocates for their clients and at times even change agents. This could be a consideration in counsellor training. A recent Ontario Ministry of Education training program for Attendance Counsellors, had a course called 'Counsellor as Change Agent'. Similar proactive strategies are required to assist adult counsellors in acquiring these skills.

C. *Conclusion*

The field of employment and adult counselling is a rapidly expanding profession. Consideration of the directions and strategies presented could prove valuable to a growing field.

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